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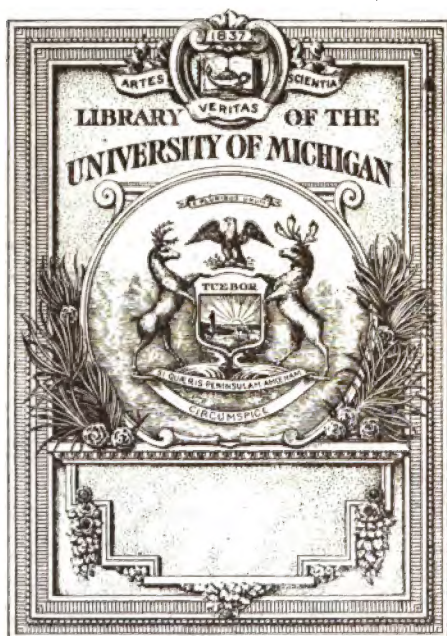
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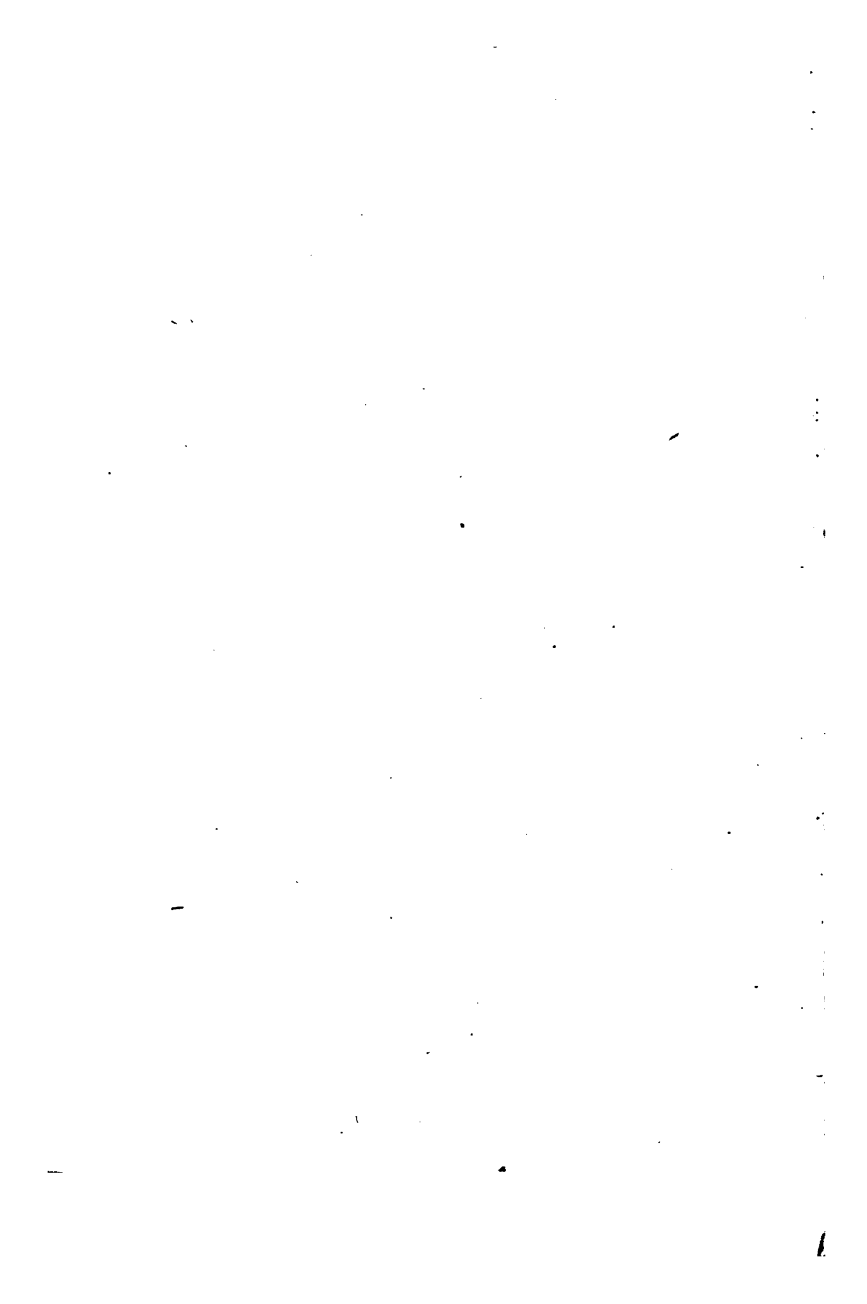
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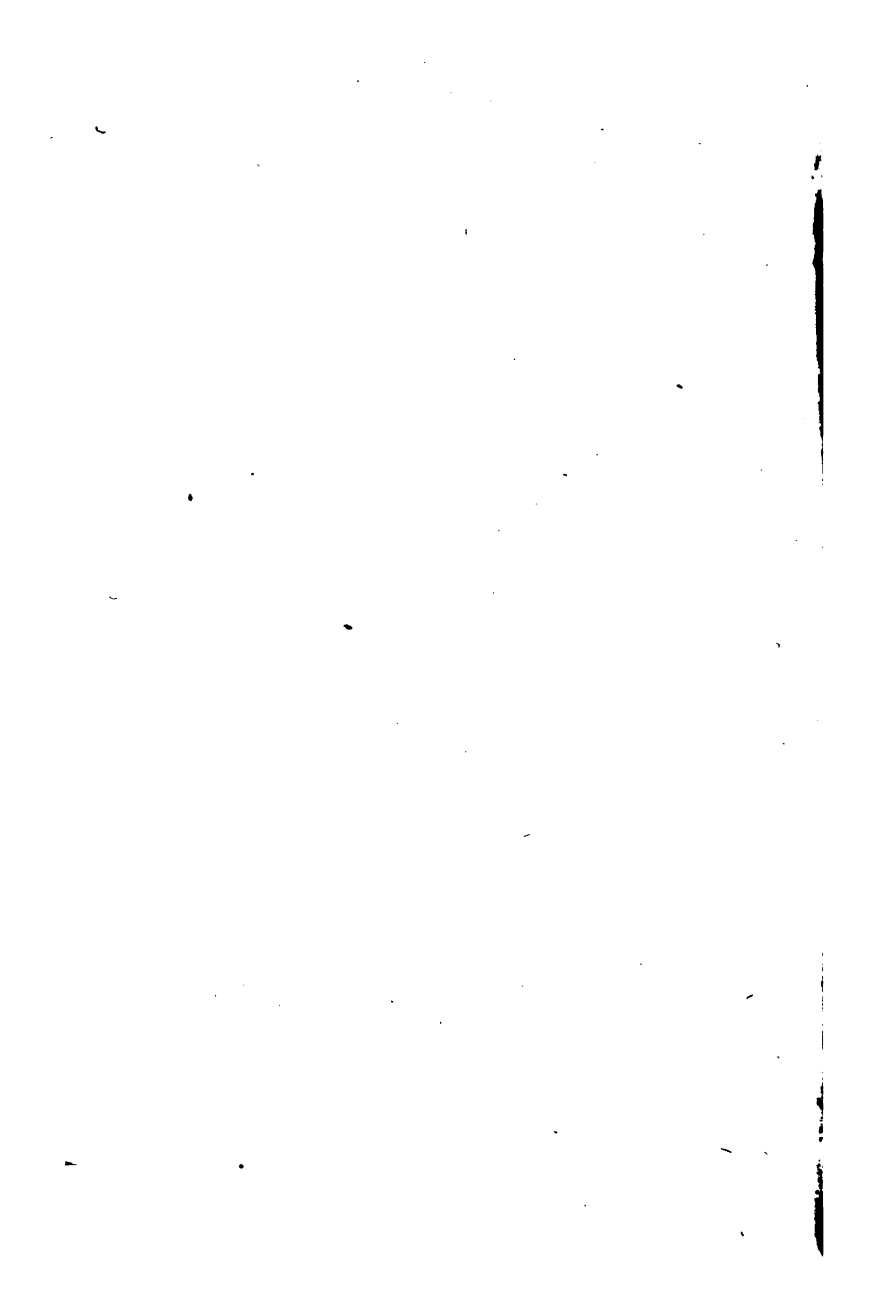
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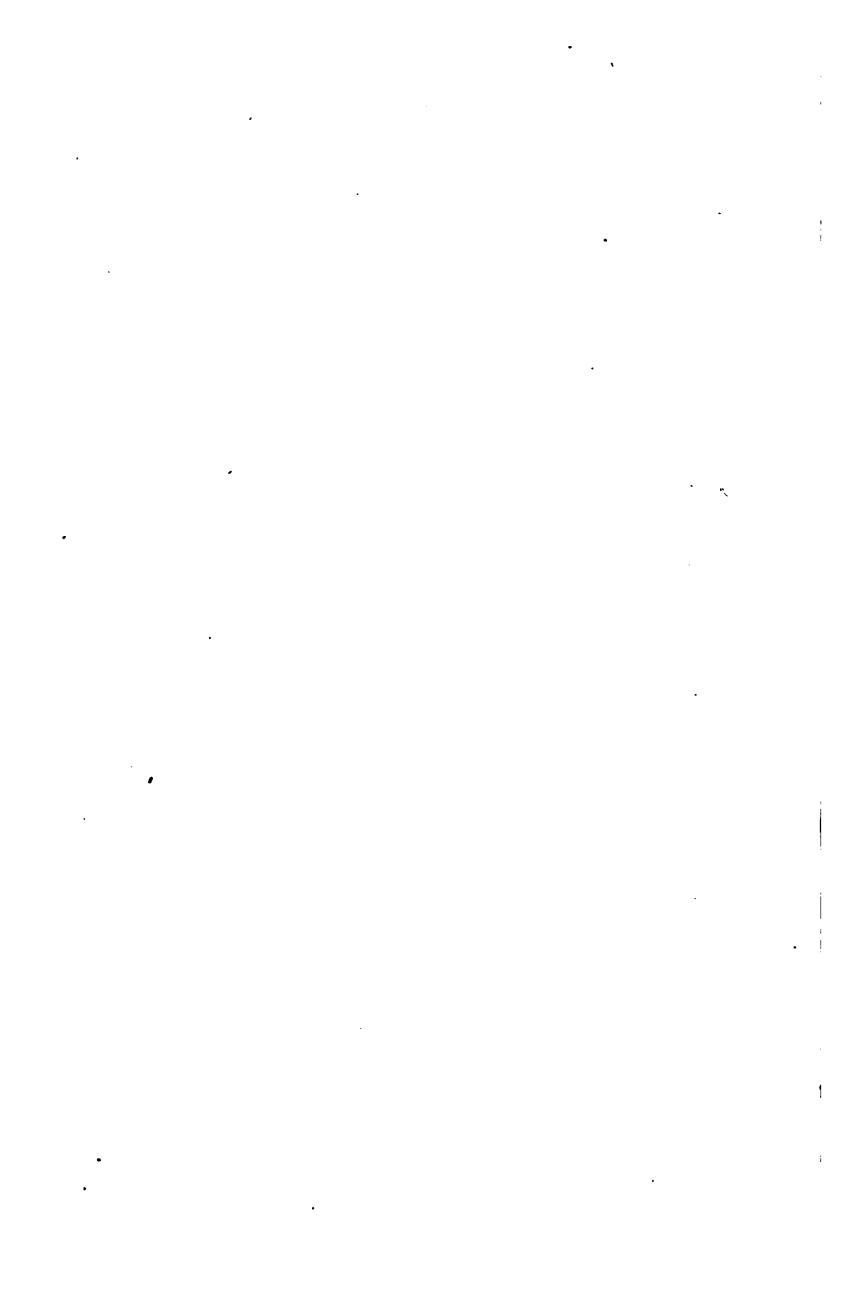


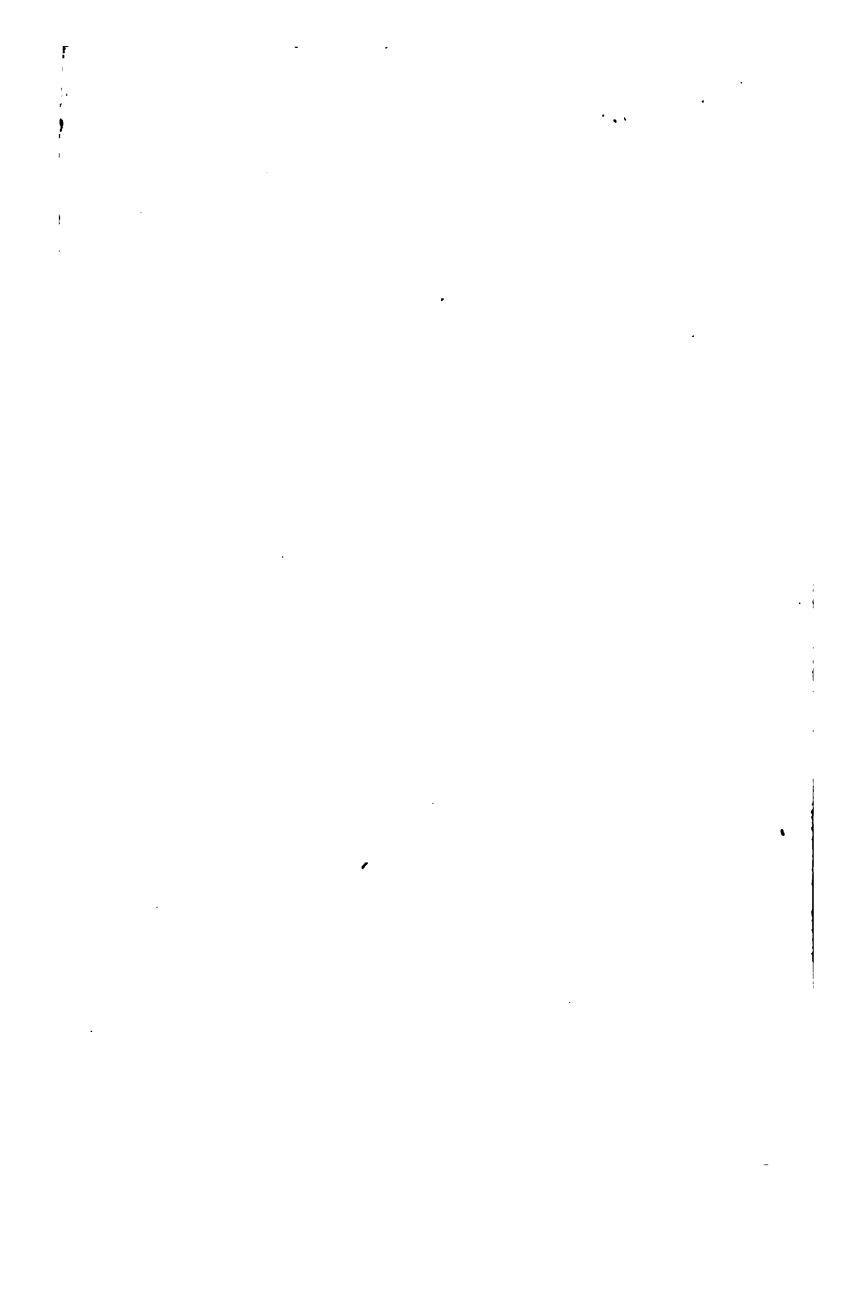






## **HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE**







Rouget de Lisle singing the Marseillaise, Pils, Louvre  
pp. 86, 413, 482

# HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE

A HANDBOOK  
OF  
HISTORICAL, LITERARY, AND ARTISTIC DATA  
WITH FULL DIRECTIONS FOR PRELIMI-  
NARY STUDIES AND TRAVELLING  
ARRANGEMENTS

*Revised*  
BY  
H. A. GUERBER

AUTHOR OF "STORIES OF THE WAGNER OPERAS,"  
"EMPRESSES OF FRANCE," ETC.

WITH MAPS, ILLUSTRATIONS, AND  
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES

NEW YORK  
DODD, MEAD AND COMPANY

1906

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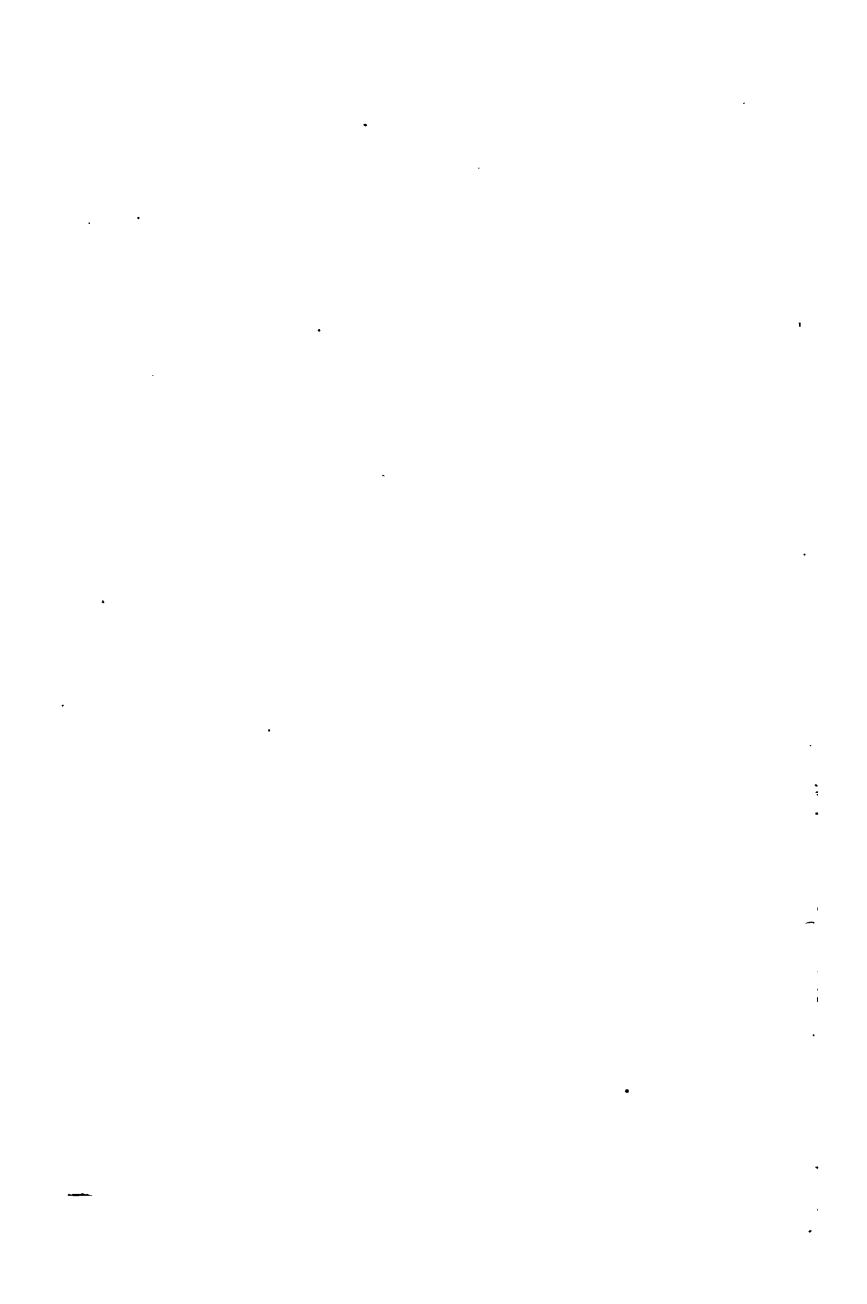
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**Published February, 1906**



**DEDICATED**  
**TO**  
**MY PUPILS**  
**PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE, WHOM I SHOULD**  
**ENJOY CONDUCTING PERSONALLY**  
**TO EUROPE**

**189875**



## INTRODUCTION

THIS book is designed to serve as advance guide for all who contemplate a tour in Europe, and is specially planned to meet the wants of the general reader, anxious to know what material and mental preparation it is best to make for such a journey.

Firmly convinced that "the proper tourist should be trained long before he begins to tour," the author further deems that this training cannot begin too soon; for, even if the journey never takes place, each step in the process of preparation is so much clear gain.

The many demands which sight-seeing makes upon every minute of time, and every particle of strength, added to the natural limitations imposed by the transportation of luggage, make it impracticable for the average traveller to carry about, or consult, the vast reference library which would be required to answer all the questions likely to arise. Still, as it is impossible, even for the best informed, to remember all the necessary names, dates, and isolated facts, a miniature reference book to consult by the way will, it is hoped, prove a decided convenience.

This volume therefore contains miscellaneous information to suit various tastes, the book lists in particular being so eclectic and full that every one can find something in them to meet his or her individual needs. The very desire to cater to the tastes of young and old, studious and frivolous, has expanded the bibliographies

to proportions alarming to any one who would foolishly undertake to read all the books they contain. But by visiting a library, or book-store, you can easily examine the works indicated, and select therefrom one or two which happen to strike *your* fancy or meet *your* wants, leaving the rest alone until the desire arises to peruse more.

It also frequently happens that we wish to bestow appropriate books upon friends leaving for foreign shores, yet do not know which to choose, only a few of the most familiar titles recurring to our memory in an emergency. Knowing whither the travellers are bound, you can quickly discover, on the various lists herein given, books which will prove both useful and interesting, — thus keeping your memory delightfully “green” during your friends’ absence.

The preparation of many travellers of different tastes and ages, — as well as of both sexes, — for the European journey, has enabled the writer to discover what is most useful to the majority as a rule, and therefore to supply considerable data in a concise form. Besides, many of her previous books were written to suit the traveller as well as the school child; so if she ventures to recommend them freely in the following pages it is not through conceit or egotism, but merely because they contain exactly the information likely to prove of most use, — which, by the way, cannot always be found in volumes of a more learned nature.

Besides practical hints regarding cost of travel, itineraries, outfit, packing, steamer accommodations and life on the ocean, information is given in regard to the various modes of travelling which can be adopted abroad; that

is, tramping, cycling, riding, driving, coaching, motoring, canoeing, etc., with due reference to the accounts of those who have had ample experience in these modes of locomotion.

As a review of oft-forgotten studies is a most helpful preparation for travel, a very brief synopsis of the history of each country is given herein, with indications concerning the best books to read during the weeks, months, or years which elapse before the contemplated journey begins. There are also separate chapters on painting, sculpture, architecture, and music; and to all these chapters have been appended chronological, alphabetical, and bibliographical lists relating to names, dates, events, schools, etc.,—giving in fact the most important data concerning the history and art of the European and ancient world.

After using this book as a guide for preparatory reading, it will doubtless have assumed the familiar guise of an old friend, so that you will know exactly where to turn while abroad for any bit of information it can supply,—a most desirable state of affairs when you are in a hurry. It is planned to meet the requirements of the *average* tourist, and particularly to aid high school and college graduates in a first trip abroad. But, aside from its lists, it is not likely to prove helpful to the much-travelled or very learned.

While most travellers visit Europe with the intention of giving more or less attention to history, art, and literature, the writer realises that many go merely in quest of rest, change of air and scene, and amusement. For the benefit of nature-lovers, pleasure-seekers of all kinds, sportsmen, invalids, etc., a chapter on each

of the countries is added, wherein much miscellaneous information has been condensed, showing what are the most characteristic and important things to be seen in different parts of the country, and making special mention of the less-hackneyed places, where, after all, you can best study the true life of the people. These chapters, also, are accompanied by lists of books of travel and description which will meet all tastes and requirements.

The illustrations have been chosen to depict characteristic parts of each country, and especially to give views not ordinarily seen in books of travel. Art in all its branches is represented also, although necessarily in a very limited way. While the author has indicated how to make an itinerary, no set plan of travel is laid down here; and any one who undertook to visit the places in the order given would considerably prolong and complicate his or her travels, and might experience some difficulty in getting from place to place; for it is only in fancy, or on paper, that travelling "as the crow flies" is practicable.

All the data given herein have been collected with care and made as accurate as one pair of hands and eyes could manage. It stands to reason that there must be some omissions, and perchance errors, in such an enormous mass of material. The author will therefore be very grateful for any suggestions or corrections, which can be incorporated in a new edition, as it is hoped this may serve as a permanent, elementary guide for European studies at home and abroad.

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# HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE

## I

### THE ATTRACTIONS OF EUROPE

A TRIP to Europe is the favourite day-dream of many Americans, and travelling facilities are increasing so rapidly that this dream is fast becoming a delightful reality for many people, as our crowded steamers bear ample witness.

Those who have once visited the old world long to repeat the experience as soon and as frequently as possible, and their enthusiasm has given rise to the facetious statement that "all *good* Americans go to Paris when they die." But Europe is not only an ideal playground for the vacation tourist, who finds there, within comparatively short distances, an infinite variety of sights and amusements, but also a storehouse of accumulated knowledge, for each picture, prospect, and building can serve as a vivid object-lesson if properly viewed and understood.

It is well to remember, however, that we can bring back stores of valuable information from such a journey only if our minds are prepared beforehand to receive and retain what we see.

For the majority of tourists the long-dreamt-of journey to Europe does not come until school days and studies are half forgotten, and the average stock of geography, history, and art has become rather rusty.

## 2 HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE

All who do not happen to be either teachers of those branches, thoroughly posted concerning the outline at least of their subject, or else indefatigable students from pure love of learning, soon discover with dismay that their knowledge of places, people, and events has become aggravatingly vague. They are constantly haunted by the feeling that if they could only recall such and such a thing clearly, it would prove of infinite interest and advantage. Every one is aware that, "one of the great delights of European travel consists in the thick-sown memorials of early and unfamiliar ages," and that "one may often find the history of thousands of years within the range of vision," but this history is, of course, perceptible only to those who are sufficiently familiar with its main features to recall it vividly at will.

Tourists will therefore find a preliminary review of old studies, however brief and elementary, not only no loss of time, but rather one of the easiest and best modes of preparation. Such a review serves, besides, to remind you of what is to be seen in the places you wish to visit; so, while making it, jot down for future reference all the items of special interest which you come across, and take note of any particular branch or subject which you would like to follow up more closely.

As "no profit comes where no pleasure is taken," it is always best to expend your main energies on what pleases you most, "in short, to study what you most affect," although it is not advisable to omit all the rest if your ambition is to be well informed. Besides, it behooves us all to have as much general knowledge as possible at our fingers' ends; and history, seen as it were in its making, or at least *where* it was made, can never again be either forgotten or despised.

For this reason the beginning of this volume lays particular stress upon this branch of study, which, rightly pursued, offers subjects of interest suited to all tastes.

If you are specially interested in literature, there are few places which are not connected with the life or writings of some celebrated or favourite author, or which have not

charming literary associations, if you only take the trouble to hunt them up. Even should you unfortunately care for nothing but fiction, there are many books of that class which, read or reread, will interest, amuse, and incidentally instruct you in regard to people about whom you wish to know more, or the places you are likely to visit.

The art attractions of Europe form a trio with its historical and literary charms. There ancient and modern architecture, painting, and sculpture can best be studied in all their phases. Should architecture claim your particular attention, you will find a vast number of profitable works on that subject to consult before you go, thus wisely preparing to view intelligently Assyrian, Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Druidic, or other ancient remains, and to trace the birth, rise, and decline of the various styles of more recent architecture, as seen in the castles, palaces, fortifications, churches, and houses of all kinds and descriptions which it may be your good fortune to see.

To the musician Europe offers unlimited advantages also. Not only are lessons cheaper, but instruction is often more accessible, more scientific and thorough, and then, too, the opportunities for hearing classical music are greater than at home, for concerts and operas are well given in nearly every large centre at popular prices, and often at much earlier hours than here, thus making it possible for those who are hard-worked to attend performances without sacrificing necessary sleep.

To the lover of the picturesque and unusual, every moment of the journey is likely to prove delightful, for the changes in landscape and costume, in manners, customs, language, etc., are constant and manifold. In fact, a few minutes' walk or ride will often transfer you into an entirely different atmosphere; Fribourg in Switzerland, for instance, is not the only place where French is spoken in the lower town and German in the upper, two distinct races having lived there, cheek by jowl for centuries, without having ever reached the point where they could quite amalgamate, although living apparently in perfect harmony.

A person with a bent for any special branch, or the member of any profession or calling, will find his or her views greatly extended or modified by a comparison between foreign methods and our own. There are mines and stockyards in Europe as well as in the West and at Chicago, schools and hospitals everywhere, — most of which can be visited with pleasure and profit, — and even the agriculturist can learn many things, besides thankfulness for his mercies in the shape of improved tools and machinery, from even the primitive methods still in practice in many conservative places.

The scientist will find unlimited opportunities to botanise, collect minerals or bugs, to study geology or other "ologies" in new fields, or engineering in works which have endured for centuries. By visiting the places where the specialty which interests you most has its centre or where it took its birth, much zest may be added to that interest and to the ordinary pleasure of travel.

Most people have preconceived ideas about certain places, which they are anxious to verify or correct, or else feel specially attracted in one direction or in another. In planning a journey it is always well to ascertain all that can be taken in on the way to and from your goal, thus availing yourself of every chance to broaden your sphere of knowledge and interest. You will find that as soon as you really begin to know something about almost any subject, it grows more absorbing than you had ever deemed possible, and long before you are thoroughly informed concerning it, you will have succumbed to the fascination which entralls every specialist or student, and will be ready to press on in your investigations with ever greater enthusiasm.

To those who seek relaxation and health, wholly new studies and interests in proper doses are quite as beneficial as tonics, and to these and all others each journey, however brief, offers almost endless facilities to become collectors, be it of art, bric-à-brac, postal cards, or even only luggage labels! Each collection, however fragmentary, offers an occupation to the solitary traveller,



while members of a party, each pursuing a particular fad or fancy, can render and receive much assistance from the rest, and thereby gain, although unconsciously, far more than they can ever bestow.

### **Bibliography of Reference Books**

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## II

### PRELIMINARIES

IN preparing for a journey it is well to begin by mapping out all the places you would *like* to see, then to proceed by means of railroad and steamship maps to arrange some sort of rough itinerary, putting all the places in proper order so as to waste the least possible amount of time, strength, and money in getting from one place to another, if the above-mentioned items are a consideration. As yet you will be travelling only on paper or in imagination, and as your itinerary is merely tentative it makes no great difference if it has to be altered an indefinite number of times.

If you have travelled, and have some knowledge of foreign languages, you can probably get along everywhere without undue trouble, but the inexperienced traveller will often get more for his money by joining a party. The tourist business has taken great strides within the past few years, and there have been phenomenal changes in the modes of locomotion since seventy years ago, when, it is claimed, the first so-called "Grand tour" was made. Now you can secure a private courier through your friends' recommendations or through some of the large banking-houses or hotels, or you can join some of the many "parties" advertised in the papers.

Besides the well-known "Cook parties" (which, like mothers-in-law, are a hackneyed subject for jokes, but which offer simply invaluable opportunities to many people), there are any number of agencies and private parties undertaking to conduct tourists through foreign lands. The newspapers and periodicals furnish the addresses of scores of these agencies and professional

guides, who, upon request, will furnish you with their itineraries, price lists, guarantees, recommendations, etc. Many profess to give more or less instruction as you go along, and some advertise lectures of various calibre. It is well, however, to investigate this feature carefully, else you might hear lectures like that which, according to a veracious newspaper clipping, was once delivered in a Vermont town. We are told that a commercial traveller had held forth so eloquently about the Panama Canal at the hotel where he was stopping, that the managers of a church festival invited him to entertain the congregation by telling them all about the canal. The drummer accepted, and delivered the following concise lecture :

“As I came into this church I noticed a ditch in the street, evidently for water pipes or something. Just imagine that ditch two hundred times as wide, two hundred times as deep, and forty-seven miles long. And there you are. Good-night.”

Needless to state, there are lectures of very different scope to be heard, and if you wish to secure the best educational advantages with limited time and expense and have no objection to mentors, you can probably not do better than to join such excursions as those advertised as “University Travel,” where specialists give all the necessary instruction.

From the different sources of information mentioned, you can select the party you would like to join. Even if you finally decide not to join any, you will meanwhile have collected considerable data about the most important things to be seen along your intended path of travel. You will also have gained a fair idea of the amount of money you will require to carry you safely through the trip, although it is always advisable to leave an ample margin “for fancies and emergencies,” if it is possible to do so.

In going from America to Europe, the first and most costly step is always the ocean journey. A note to the different steamship companies, whose boats sail from all the great Atlantic seaports, will bring by return mail an

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immense amount of literature, wherein the advantages of each particular route are fully set forth, with accommodations and rates suited to all tastes and purses. The second class in some ships is fully equal to the first of others, and there are a few lines which carry only one or two classes. For "tramp tourists" of the male sex, steerage may be possible at a pinch, but where ladies are concerned, the first or second class cabins alone can enter into consideration. In choosing a cabin, individual idiosyncrasies and tastes must be studied to insure as much comfort as possible. Midship there is the least pitching motion; aft the tremor from the screws is greatest, but usually the odours from the machinery and kitchen are more remote. Outside cabins are more desirable only *if* the portholes can be opened, height above the water and weather permitting, otherwise the ventilation is exactly the same as for all other cabins, namely, through the ventilating funnels on deck. The wash of the sea against the hull, the scrubbing of decks at dawn, and the endless tramping of promenaders immediately overhead, prove disturbing to many. Cabins adjoining corridors where there is much passage to and fro are noisy. Therefore they are undesirable to some, while others object to those that are difficult of access from the deck or saloon.

It is always well, if there is any prospect of your crossing during the "rush season" (i. e. outward bound May 1 to July 15, homeward bound August 15 to October 15), to secure the refusal of your cabin by a deposit which will be returned to you, under certain stipulated conditions, in case you find you cannot sail. These conditions are set forth in the steamship companies' prospectuses, with brief, useful directions about luggage, etc., which it is always well to follow carefully. However, in case the information you desire is not forthcoming, inquiry at the nearest steamship office or through some tourist agency will be sure to elicit all you wish to know.

It is always prudent to secure a round trip ticket in

advance, for then you are certain of your return passage, of a cabin or berth when you want it, and you save a trifle besides.

The mere prospect of soon crossing the Atlantic rouses a previously unfelt interest in steamers, ocean currents, wave force, fogs, sandbanks, icebergs, shipwrecks, whales, and porpoises, naval history, piracy, — in short, in all the items you are likely to meet or hear discussed during your journey. If you are not incapacitated by prosaic seasickness, you will not lack diversion aboard, for, aside from the constantly new and fascinating study of human nature and the usual sports and games, there is the ship itself — a travelling hotel as well as a triumph of mechanical ingenuity — with the ever-changing sea and sky.

In the ship library you will doubtless find many books of interest, yet it is always safer to provide one's own reading materials, and advisable to have read up enough about the ocean to know in a measure what to look for, and to feel some of the magic spell cast over it by books of fiction such as Janvier's "Sargasso Sea," Verne's "Twenty Thousand Leagues under the Sea," Tilton's "Tempest Tossed," and Hugo's "Travailleurs de la Mer," and such poems as Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner" and Homer's "Odyssey," not to mention scientific works, which, however, are likely to interest only those who care enough about the matter to look into it more closely.

On an itinerary there are always a few places which you are sure to visit, even if others must be cut out of the list. In preparing, if you are certain to turn up in London sometime, it is wise to find a map of the city, — either in an encyclopædia or guide book, — and while reading to locate all the places mentioned in your books. Your review of English history and literature will call your attention, for instance, to the Tower, to Charing Cross, St. James's Palace, Whitehall, the Temple, etc., etc., and if you then and there seek out each of these places, the map of London will have no more mysteries for you when you reach the other side, and

you will be able to guide yourself from place to place, without inquiring at every step where you are and which way you are to turn next.

By securing a good guide book, such as Baedeker, with its minute and invaluable practical information, or by reading up such fascinating volumes as Grant Allen's "Guides," Hare's "Walks," or compilations like Miss Singleton's "London," "Paris," etc., you will soon discover what *you* would most like to see in any city, and can make out your own list. But if you are quite inexperienced, it may be well to place yourself, for your first excursion at least, in competent hands, or else to follow carefully some of the numerous, almost stereotyped programs for sightseers, which include all the most important, although sometimes rather hackneyed places.

After reviewing the history of the country you intend to visit, read up as much as you can about it, taking art, literature, travel, etc., in such measures as your inclinations suggest. You will thus discover all there is of interest to be seen wherever you are going. That done, you can portion out your time and money, deciding what you *can* do and what you *must* leave undone, — which latter is, by the way, one of the hardest yet most important lessons a tourist has to learn. While reading up on England, Scotland, and Ireland, locate every place, until you are, for instance, sure that Killarney and Loch Katrine are not on the same island, and until foreign maps are as familiar as your own.

In the guide books you can find hotel addresses and prices, railway, steamboat, and cab fares from one point to another, with the time required for the journey or drive, and can therefore calculate pretty accurately how much the trip will cost and how long it will take. It is well, however, to allow some margin of time for the unexpected, as that is often one of the most delightful features of the journey, and to make a rough but ample estimate of the miles to be covered, calculating that it costs on an average two cents a mile per rail and one

and a half cents a mile per boat. Your total mileage once computed, add ten per cent for safety's sake, and then you may be pretty sure of keeping within the allotted margin. The remainder of your travelling fund, divided by the number of days you plan to spend abroad, will represent the amount you can afford to spend for board and lodgings, laundry, carriages, etc., and for the inevitable "tip," "pourboire," "trinkgeld," "mancha," or "backshish" which will form no slight item in your budget of expenses.

While the meaning and derivation of "pourboire," "trinkgeld," etc. is obvious to even the most elementary students of the French, German, etc. languages, that of "tip" is less patent. We are told that many years ago it was customary to place a money-box near the door or cashier's desk in English eating and coffee houses. This box always bore the letters T. I. P., abbreviations for the words "to insure promptness," and each client, on passing out, was expected to drop something into this box, the amount thus gathered being equally divided among the waiters or other attendants.

Besides maps, guides, and time tables, the usual encyclopædias, and books of reference will furnish all the data you wish.

Most people live sufficiently near to a public library of some kind to have access to more books on a given subject than a private collection is likely to contain. By looking up in the card catalogue such items as "travel" and "Europe," you will not only be likely to find all that the library has on these items, but you will strike cross references, such as "Europe, see Countries," etc. Then by investigating what they have on "Austria," "Belgium," the "Caucasus," for instance, you will soon learn what there is for you to read and you can then make your own selection.

As this volume is intended to serve as a preparatory guide, as well as for reference later on in your travels, lists of desirable books and chronological tables have been appended to many of the chapters. The book

lists are catholic enough to include something to suit almost every taste, but a selection must, of course, be made by individual readers, as it is not expected that any one will care for *all* the books on any given subject. It may be also that only a small percentage of the number mentioned will prove accessible, but if you make the best of what is near at hand, however little that may be, you will always gain something which will be of value in the course of your travels.

Should you live near a centre where there is a museum, begin by learning *how to see* what is there, in the way of paintings, sculpture, drawings, ceramics, casts, models, curios of all kinds, and in all branches of natural history. When you have really learned how to use even the smallest collection, you have taken the first step toward fitting yourself for the study of such treasure-houses as the British Museum, the Louvre, the Vatican, etc., and you will doubtless have discovered that repeated visits are always the most profitable. One soon perceives that many things were overlooked on previous occasions, and learns that it is always best to take up one branch or subject at a time.

You can also derive much information from the stereopticon and other lectures, so frequent nowadays, and from the pictures which cheap processes of reproduction have multiplied to such an extent that they are accessible to people of very small means. There are, for instance, the penny reproductions issued by the Perry, the Harper, and the Cosmos companies, which include all the masterpieces of ancient and modern architecture, painting, and sculpture, not to mention endless series of views of all countries.

When you have exhausted all the sources of information available in your own and your friends' houses, in the public libraries of your own town, school, church, club, etc., you will find that you have built up much of the necessary foundation to see and enjoy intelligently, and from that point, as a basis, you can proceed indefinitely and *ad libitum*.



## Bibliography of Reference Books

**Abbott**, Dictionary of Religious Knowledge; **Adams**, Manual of Historical Literature; **Alison**, History of Europe, 1793-1815; History of Europe, 1815-1852; **Andrews, Fiske, etc.**, History of All Nations; **Botta**, Handbook of Universal Literature; **Bryant**, Dictionary of Painters, etc.; **Century Dictionary** of Names and Atlas; **Chisholm**, Europe; **Clarendon Press**, Historical Atlas; **Deniker**, The Races of Man; **Dixon**, Comprehensive Subject Index to Prose Fiction; Encyclopædia Britannica; **Fergusson**, History of Art; **Freeman**, History of Europe; **Fyffe**, History of Modern Europe; **Garnett and Gosse**, English Literature; **Grove**, Dictionary of Music; **Harper**, Classical Dictionary; **Hassall**, European History, Chronology; **Haydn**, Dictionary of Dates; **Helmolt**, History of the World, 8 vols.; **Judson**, Europe in the Nineteenth Century; **Labberton**, Historical Atlas; **Larned**, History for Ready Reference; **Lawrence**, The Principles of International Law; **Lempriere**, Classical Dictionary; **Little**, Cyclopædia of Classified Dates; **Lodge**, History of Modern Europe; **Lowell**, Governments and Parties in Continental Europe; **Lübke**, History of Art; **Millar**, The Mid-Eighteenth Century; **New International Encyclopædia**; **Parker**, Historical Photographs; **Schwill**, History of Modern Europe; General History of Europe; **Sheldon**, Studies in General History; **Source Books** of Bibliography; **Steele**, Barnes' Brief History of Modern Peoples; **Stieler**, Atlas; **Swinton**, Outline of the World's History; **Thatcher**, A General History of Europe; **Traill**, The First Half of the Seventeenth Century; Various Guides to Historical Sources; **Warner**, Library of the World's Best Literature; **Williams**, Historians' History of the World; **Wilmot-Buxton**, Makers of Europe; **Wright**, History of All Nations.

### III

## SACRED HISTORY

IN the greater part of Europe, and more particularly in the south, religion has been object-taught from the time of Our Lord until the present day. Previous to the invention of printing, and the consequent multiplication of extant manuscripts, only a few privileged persons were rich enough to own books, and the men sufficiently learned to read and expound them were rare indeed. Even now in southern countries a large proportion of the people remain illiterate.

The bulk of the population, as is the case with all unlettered nations, received all its information solely through the eye and ear. Story-telling was therefore soon supplemented by pictures, which could convey a meaning directly, and every device was brought into play to rouse interest and fix the wandering attention.

Religion being a matter of paramount importance, not only to all nations, but to all classes, the most persistent efforts were used to instil its principles, and the greatest ingenuity displayed in making its details familiar to old and young.

Until the end of the middle ages, children and all of childlike minds — this category included the great majority — were most interested in simple stories from the Old Testament, and in a bare outline of the life, death, and resurrection of Christ.

It is this part of religion which still makes the strongest appeal to the untutored to-day. There is now hardly a home so poor that some copy of the Holy Writ — even an illustrated edition — cannot be found. Besides, our children, as a rule, all attend some form of Sunday-school, where priest, minister, rabbi — or whatever name

the teacher may bear — directs, if he does not personally impart, the lessons they are to receive.

In all these places countless methods are employed to fix facts, and to imprint on plastic minds the moral they teach. In olden times, when many of the educational devices now so common were utterly wanting, and when means of instruction or facilities for travel were either difficult or impossible, each church or religious community aimed to become a permanent object lesson as well as a house of prayer.

The pictures, carvings, mosaics, and stained-glass windows, therefore, represented separate chapters of the popular Scriptures, making each ecclesiastical building as nearly as possible a complete Bible in itself. This fact is so well known that Ruskin, speaking of one of the finest Gothic churches in the world, terms it simply "The Bible of Amiens."

Wherever you go in Europe, and whichever way you turn, your eye is likely to rest upon some more or less antique work of art, executed for the express purpose of teaching religion, and further hallowed by the fact that it has served as catechism or book of devotion to generations of Christians. Many of these pictures and statues are so battered, and seem so queer, that were it not for these associations they would be almost devoid of interest to any save experts in art or archæology. Still, if we can recognise at a glance what subject the artist intended to represent, we are soon seized by a desire to ascertain how he proposed to interpret sundry other passages and events in the sacred Writ. We find that these conceptions are sometimes startling in their literalness. For instance, in Raphael's famous Bible Series in the Vatican Loggie, the painter represents the Creator standing in the centre of a composition, where the animals, owing to an objective rendering of the Scripture words, are seen wriggling out of the ground on all sides like so many earthworms.

Not only events, but parables also, were once illustrated in the same literal manner, and in the course of

your travels you will doubtless come across many odd examples of this fact. There is, for instance, a famous picture, where the "beam," with utter disregard for the law of gravitation, sticks straight out of the eye of one self-satisfied mortal, who is pointing eagerly the while at the almost invisible "mote" in the eye of his companion.

In Isaiah (vi. 6-7) a cherub is directed by the Almighty to take a live coal and touch the prophet's lips, — figurative language, intended, of course, to describe the burning eloquence of the words about to be uttered, — but this, too, is represented literally, the angel, with due solicitude for his own comfort, arming himself with a pair of tongs, by means of which he ruthlessly proceeds to apply the live coal to the kneeling prophet's mouth.

Childlike interpretations like these often cast a great deal of light upon the times, and not infrequently supply the key to otherwise unintelligible passages in history. It is on account of this fact, and because Bible stories confront us on all sides in Europe, that it is well, never mind how diligently we have hitherto perused the Scriptures, to review all these stories *as stories*, so as to have all their outlines and salient details fresh in our memories. Some of us may pride ourselves upon "knowing all about the Bible stories, having been brought up on them," but it is likely we shall make the humiliating discovery before we have been abroad very long, that we are familiar with a *selection* of them only, and that a number, very prominent in art, were wholly omitted from our curriculum.

Only recently I overheard some one remark that Ghiberti's doors, in Florence, put to a severe test the gazer's knowledge of the Old Testament, and were certainly a fair substitute for a Bible History examination, provided an attempt were made to trace out all the details of the composition.

As most of the earlier Christian artists belonged to the Roman Catholic Church, and worked to embellish its shrines and spread its teachings, they often depicted



General View of Cathedral, Amiens  
pp. 15, 92, 95, 452



Presentation of the Virgin, Titian, Academy, Venice  
pp. 17, 22, 216, 416

scenes from the Old Testament Apocrypha, which their canon admits. These Apocryphal (*hidden*) works, which are omitted from Protestant Bibles, are: the Book of Tobias, the Book of Judith, the rest of the Book of Esther, the Book of Wisdom, Jesus the son of Sirach, Baruch the Prophet, the Song of the Three Children, the Story of Susannah, Bel and the Dragon, and the First and Second Books of the Maccabees.

There are, besides, other apocryphal works, which no church admits as inspired, but from which artists have also culled subjects, although not as frequently as from the works countenanced by their creed. It is from the admitted Apocrypha that painters and sculptors selected the themes for the countless masterpieces illustrating the stories of Judith, Susannah, and Tobit, among which masterpieces can be found Raphael's "Madonna of the Fish," and the great fresco in the Sistine Chapel of "Judith and Holophernes," both of which would be wholly meaningless to the gazer if the outline of the stories, as told in these books, could not be instantly recalled.

Not only the Old Testament and Apocrypha stories are of prime importance, but it is also necessary to have in mind a clear outline of the life of Christ, of the lives and acts of His apostles, and of the history and legends connected with the Virgin Mary, her parents, Joseph, and the saints. In fact, the more we know about them, the deeper interest we shall feel, for many of the accessories, even, have a mystical significance for the initiated, which serves at times to glorify otherwise uninteresting pictures or statues.

With the gradual spread of Christianity, persecutions and martyrdoms afforded undying renown to certain Christians, whose lives not only became the text for further stories and teachings, but the subject for additional statues and pictures. There are, indeed, certain churches which contain complete pictorial biographies of the saints in whose honour they were erected; but unless we have some knowledge of their times, of what they did and

suffered, we can feel no interest in these edifices, and thus miss a great deal.

It is, therefore, indispensable for the intelligent traveller to become acquainted with the outline, at least, of the stories of the principal saints, or to refresh and increase such store of knowledge as he or she may already possess. In England, for instance, — although it has long been a Protestant country, — it is of the utmost importance to know about St. George, its patron saint, and to be familiar with the phases of St. Augustine's missionary work.

In Ireland St. Patrick confronts us wherever we go, and in France, the romantic tales of the three patron saints, St. Denis, St. Martin, and St. Geneviève, are depicted time and again. In Spain and Italy the saints are legion; still, familiarity with the legends of St. James, St. Lawrence, St. Sebastian, and the founders of the principal monastic orders, will serve as a clue to lead you ultimately out of the maze.

In Germany St. Christopher is familiar to all the common people, while the Dutch St. Nicholas has been transplanted to our side of the Atlantic, although in a very modified and unorthodox guise. As the names of the saints are household words in many countries abroad, each has his own distinctive emblem or device, and it is most useful to be able to recognise these at a glance, for, of course, the presentations of the saints themselves, being the work of individual artistic imaginations, bear no resemblance to each other, and have only one or more of these signs to distinguish them.

Besides pictures and statues, many of the churches also contain relics, which, to believers, are simply priceless treasures. These, too, require familiarity with the source from whence they were derived before they can rouse either interest or sympathy. They are carefully preserved in shrines of all sizes and forms, from tiny satin-lined, gold-chased, gem-encrusted caskets, to wonderful edifices like the Sainte Chapelle of Paris, or the Cathedral of Cologne (erected respectively to contain



the Crown of Thorns and the bones of the Three Wise Men), to cite two examples only out of all those which could be enumerated.

Because the relics of Christ and the saints are regarded with great veneration by many people, it behooves all travellers to gaze upon them with due respect for such feelings. Some tourists, by unseemly merriment or jocose questions, have actually caused some of these famous treasures to be removed from profane view, so that now they are exhibited to the faithful only, and on stated occasions.

For the sake of a mere joke, travellers thus sometimes forfeit what might have been a source of pleasure and instruction, if nothing else. For instance, on one occasion, when a munificent tip had induced the custodian of the St. Denis treasury to unlock its ponderous doors, an apparently innocent inquiry from one of the party, "whether that saint really had three legs, for he had already seen two of his thigh bones elsewhere?" caused the keeper to slam the door with a muttered, horror-stricken gasp of "Heretic!"

Neither entreaties nor bribes could prevail to procure another glimpse of these treasures (the majority have since been removed to the Louvre and elsewhere), and untimely levity thus received its well-earned punishment. But the remainder of the party were deprived of the privilege as well as the culprit, for, being all heretics from the custodian's point of view, they were one and all considered quite unworthy of even a glance at sacred things.

It cannot therefore be too strongly borne in mind that we must respect the people's point of view, and refrain in their presence from glances or comments which could wound their feelings. Besides, if we wish to enter into the spirit of the religion which has been, and is still, interwoven in every fibre of their being, we must study it sufficiently from their standpoint to gain some conception, however dim, of what it means, or has meant to them in the past. That state being reached, even if you feel no particular sympathy with saints as saints, you will

soon be interested in testing your knowledge of their lives, or ingenuity in tracing out symbols, so as to recognise particular worthies among the host of figures which will arrest your attention in the course of your travels.

To reach this point it is suggested that the would-be traveller read carefully the books in the "elementary" list indicated,—books which, however simple, contain the essentials for a preliminary view of the subject. Then, should time and opportunity permit, the study can be pursued with pleasure and profit far beyond the limits of even the long list subjoined, for one book will suggest another, and in the course of his reading the student will find mention of many other works which he can consult.

Should you not be able to purchase the books mentioned, or if you cannot procure them from any town or travelling library within reach, look about you for such helps as you can secure near at hand. You will find material in the Bible with the usual appendices, in encyclopædias, and in any books or articles bearing on the subject.

Besides, you can begin right away to study pictures, for books, magazines, and even advertisements afford material to commence this study. In preparing pupils for European travel, I have found large collections of photographs, engravings, and illustrations of all kinds simply invaluable, and I have arranged my pictures so as to tell the consecutive story, not only of the Chosen People, but of Christ, the Virgin, and the lives of the principal saints. My pupils are trained to seek for certain symbols, the "hall marks" as it were, which will help them later on to identify the principal saints.

By making intelligent use of all the pictures that you can examine, and by the judicious purchase (or even inspection only) of such reproductions as the excellent penny copies of great masterpieces, you can soon become familiar with the subject, grouping, and principal features of the most famous works of art. Then, later on, when beholding the originals, you will not only recognise old friends in glorified garb, but will be able

to devote all your time and attention to the works themselves, without wasting precious moments in tracing out details which could equally well have been studied on any reproduction, however poor.

For the convenience of travellers wishing to locate the time, place, or nationality of some of the events or persons connected with this branch of learning, lists are added to this chapter which contain salient events and prominent names, the seeker being referred to other sources for more recondite information.

Many people find it advantageous, while reading and studying, to make a collection of their own, the periodicals often offering much handy material for this purpose. Then they proceed to study both these pictures, and any others they are so fortunate as to find at home or abroad, by the light of what they have learned.

Even if you are so unfortunate as to begin with no taste whatever for art, you cannot help being interested in the *subject* represented by the pictures or statues, and little by little you will learn to take a more appreciative view of the rest. Indeed, it will not be very long before you progress sufficiently to recognise the handiwork of a few artists; for to the initiated each master has his particular style, and his pictures bear his own unmistakable stamp.

However, in the case of a beginner, it may be well at first to devote one's main energies to the subject only, because each phase of the lives of Christ or the saints, and all the history of the Old Testament, has been fully illustrated, time and again, during the past twenty centuries, and masterpieces in sacred art are numerous.

Familiarity with these stories and masterpieces will not only add to our fund of knowledge and pleasure, but will prevent our making such a ridiculous mistake as a loud-voiced mother, who was overheard enjoining a meek-faced daughter to "look at that picture, now, the wedding of Cana [the wedding at Cana, by Veronese], and be sure and talk about it when you get home, for it is a headpiece!"

## List of the Principal Saints

Saint	Date	Birthplace or Nationality	Profession	Patron, Protector, and Founder	Characteristics and Attributes	Mode of Death
Adrian . .	290	Roman . .	Military . . . .	Soldiers, brewers, Flagellators, Germany, N. France, <i>vs.</i> plague	Anvil, sword or axe, lion . . .	Beheaded.
Agatha . .	251	Catania (Italy)	Virgin and martyr	Malta and Catania, <i>vs.</i> fire and diseases of the breast	Palm, salver with female breast, sometimes shears, veil	Tortured.
Agnes . . .	304	Roman . .	Virgin and martyr	Young women, Roman women, maidenhood	Hair as cloak, lamb, palm, crown	Sword.
Ambrose . .	397	Trèves . .	Prefect of Gaul .	"Father" of the Church, Milan	Mitre, crozier, beehive, knotted scourge, with Theodosius	Natural.
Anastasia .	304	Roman . .	Fisherman, disciple	Greek Church . . . .	Palm, stake, fagots . . . .	Burned.
Andrew . .	70	Hebrew . .		Scotland. Orders of Golden Fleece and cross of St. Andrew. Russia	White hair and beard, Gospel, transverse cross, book	Crucifixion X.
Anne . . .	B. C.	Hebrew . .	Mother of Virgin	Mothers . . . . .	Elderly woman, veil . . . . .	Natural.
Anthony . .	357	Egyptian .	Bishop . . . . .	Founder of Monachism <i>vs.</i> fire here and hereafter	Monk's habit, letter on cope, crutch, rods, hog, flames, temptation, bell.	
Antony (Padua)	1231	Portuguese .	Franciscan monk	Franciscans . . . . .	Monk and infant Saviour on open book, or Youth, cord and habit gray or brown, lily, crucifix, flame, mule kneeling	Exhaustion.
Athanasius .	373	Alexandrian	Bishop of Alexandria	Theologians. "Father of orthodoxy"	Bishop, mitre, crozier, infant by seashore, flaming heart	Vandal Invasion.
Augustine .	430	Numidian .	Theologian . . .	Theologians, and saints, Augustine	Benedictine habit, staff and Gospel, or pallium, cope and mitre.	
Augustine (Canterbury)	604	Roman . .	Monk . . . . .	Introduces Benedictine Order in England.		



Cathedral, Canterbury  
pp. 22, 104, 453, 464, 469



Martyrdom of St. Denis, Bonnat,  
the Pantheon, Paris  
pp 18, 24, 94. 405

Barbara . . .	303	East (Heliopolis)	Student . . .	Ferrara, Mantua and Guastala, of fortifications, firearms, armourers, <i>vs.</i> lighting and gunpowder . . . . .	Tower with three windows, book, palm and sword	Beheaded.
Bartholomew . . .	B. C.	Hebrew . .	Prince, husbandman, missionary	Greek Church and Basilicans	Large knife, his own skin	Flayed and beheaded.
Basil . . . .	379	Cesarean . .	Priest . . . .	Benedictine Order . .	White dove, Greek pontificals, bareheaded, thin, worn. Black habit, sometimes Carthusian white habit, asperges, mitre, staff, raven, pitcher, thorn bush, broken sieve	Fever.
Benedict . . .	543	Duchy of Spoleto	Hermit, missionary		Habit, mitre and crozier, demon, three mitres on book, roll of papers, beehive.	
Bernard . . . .	1153	French (Dijon)	Father of Church	Founder of Monastery	Halo, Franciscan habit, hill with three mounds, banner.	Murdered by Frisians.
Bernardino . .	1444	Sieneese . .	Monk . . . .	Founder of pawnshops. Oservanti	Life scenes, as monk or bishop, book stained with blood or Nun's habit, light.	
Boniface . . .	755	English . .	Apostle of Germany	Women. Founder of Convent for women	Mature age, nun, tunic, wimple, veil, red band, crozier, pilgrim staff.	
Bridget . . .	523	Irish . . .	Disciple of St. Patrick, nun	Founder of Order of Bridgettines	White habit, letter.	
Bridget . . . .	1373	Swede . . .	Princess, nun . .		Crown of Royalty, wheel, palm, book, sword, tramping on pagan, receiving ring from Christ Child	Broken on wheel, beheaded.
Bruno . . . .	1101	Cologne . .	Monk . . . .	Founder of Carthusian Order at Chartreux	Dominican habit, stigmata, lily, palm, crown of thorns, cross, book, receiving ring from Christ Child	Natural.
Catherine . . .	307	Alexandria .	Virgin and martyr, student	Education, science, philosophy and eloquence, students, <i>vs.</i> diseases of tongue	Rich garments, organ, roll of music, sometimes crown of roses, angel, caldron, jewels	Boiling water and beheaded.
Catherine . .	1380	Sieneese . .	Nun, Bride of Christ	Venice . . . . .		
Cecilia . . . .	280	Roman . . .	Musician . . .	Music and musicians .		

List of the Principal Saints — *continued*

Saint	Date	Birthplace or Nationality	Profession	Patron, Protector, and Founder	Characteristics and Attributes	Mode of Death
Charles Borromeo	1584	Lombardy .	Archbishop of Milan	Music, painting, sculpture, <i>vs.</i> plague	Cardinal robes, barefoot, rope around neck.	
Christina . .	295	Italy . . .	Patrician . . .	Bolsena, Venetian States, Treviso	Millstone, arrows, palm, crown	
Christopher .	364	Canaan . .	Giant . . . .	<i>vs.</i> earthquakes, fire and tempest	Staff, lantern, Christ Child, monk in background, up to ankles in water.	Tortured, shot.
Clara . . . .	1253	Assisi . . .	Religious life . .	Founder of Order of Franciscan nuns	Gray tunic, black veil, pyx containing Host, lily, cross, palm	Trance.
Clement . .	100	Rome . . .	Third Bishop of Rome	Father of Church . .	As Pope, with or without tiara.	Trance.
Cosmo and Damian	301	Arabians . .	Physicians . . .	Medicine and Medici family	Anchor. Bishop's robes Physician's red robes, fur trimmed, red cap, box of ointment, lance, pestle.	Beheaded.
Cuthbert	687	English (Durham)	Shepherd and priest, missionary	Durham Cathedral .	Head of St. Oswald, otter. Fed like Elijah.	
Denis . . . .	272	French (Athenian)	Judge, student, missionary	Paris, France . . .	Severed head, angel, palm, episcopal robes	Beheaded.
Dominick . .	1221	Castilian . .	Student, missionary	Order of Dominicans. <i>vs.</i> Albigenes. Instituted Rosary.	Dog, torch, star, lily, book, rosary, tunic and scapulary.	
Edward (Confessor)	1066	English . .	King, healing . .	. . . . .	Crown, ring, halo, palm, as healer, with pilgrims.	
Elizabeth . .	B. C.	Hebrew . .	Mother of John Baptist	. . . . .	Matronly age, dark complexion, coiffe	Natural.
Elizabeth (Hungary)	1231	Hungary . .	Princess . . . .	Poor and sick, Bavaria	White or red roses, water, poor and sick, as princess or widow, three crowns.	
Eloi of Noyon	659	French . . .	Goldsmith . . .	Bologna, Noyon, metal workers, farriers	Miracle of horse-shoeing, mitre, book, short tunic, hammer, tongs.	



Eustace . .	118	Roman . .	Hunter . . . .	Sportsmen . . . .	Stag with cross . . . . .	{ Burned in brazen bull.
Ferdinand (Castile)	1252	Spaniard . .	King . . . . .	Burgos and Toledo Ca- thedrals. Seville	Cord and crucifix, penitent in armour, regal mantle, crown, drawn sword.	Penitent.
Francis of Assisi	1226	Assisi . .	Monk . . . . .	Founder of Franciscan Order . . . . .	Stigmata, poverty, chastity, obe- dience, as monk with cord, lamb, lily, skull	Natural.
Francis of Paula	1507	Calabria . .	Monk. Godfather of Francis I	Founder of Bon- hommes or Minims	Cowled monk with staff, cord and brown habit, scapulary, "caritas"	
Francis of Sales	1622	French (Geneva)	Bishop . . . . .	Protestants, Minims, Augustines	Personal beauty, Episcopal cope, bareheaded, heart pierced with thorns.	
Francis Xavier	1552	French . .	Missionary . . . .	Sick . . . . .	Habit of priest, surplice, black beard, crucifix, lily	Fever.
Gabriel . .	. .	. . . . .	Archangel . . . .	. . . . .	Wings, lily, scroll, sometimes sceptre and olive branch.	
Geneviève of Brabant	8th cent.	Belgian . .	Countess . . . .	. . . . .	Long hair, doe.	
Geneviève of Paris	512	French . .	Shepherdess . . .	Paris. Ardents. <i>vs.</i> plague, famine, flood	Aged, cowled or veiled, taper or breviary, sometimes young, demon, bellows	Natural.
George . .	303	Cappadocia	Tribune . . . . .	England, Germany, ar- mours Venice, soldiers, ir-	Armour, dragon, young, trium- phant, lance	Beheaded.
Gregory the Great	604	Rome . .	Pope . . . . .	Latin Church, <i>vs.</i> plague	Bed and scourge, book, papal tiara, crozier with double cross	Natural.
Helena . .	328	English . .	Queen. Mother of Constantine	Church of Nativity. Bethlehem, invention of cross	Cross, crown, book. Vision of Cross	Natural.
Henry of Ba- varia	1024	Germany . .	Prince, warrior, missionary	. . . . .	Cathedral, armour, orb of sov- ereignty, sword.	
Hippolytus .	258	Roman . .	Soldier . . . . .	Horses, France . . .	Warrior's dress. With S. Law- rence, keys at girdle, instru- ments of torture	Tied to wild horses.
Hubert . .	727	Aquitaine . .	Courtier and hunter, bishop	Chase and dogs. Mili- tary Order of St. Hu- bert, <i>vs.</i> hydropobia	Stag with crucifix, in episcopal habit, book, hunting horn.	

List of the Principal Saints — *continued*

Saint	Date	Birthplace or Nationality	Profession	Patron, Protector, and Founder	Characteristics and Attributes	Mode of Death
Ignatius . .	107	Antioch . .	Bishop . . . . .	. . . . .	Presented "Except ye become as a little child," etc. Visions, robe given by Virgin, black habit.	In amphitheatre at Rome.
Ildefonso . .	667	Spain . . .	Benedictine monk	Toledo . . . . .	Third place as disciple. Pilgrim's wallet, cloak, staff and shell	Beheaded.
James the Great	44	Hebrew . .	Apostle, evangelist, warrior	Spain . . . . .	Fuller's club. Ninth in order of disciples	Brained.
James Minor	. .	Hebrew . .	The Just (the Lord's brother)	. . . . .	Volcano, (blood miracle), robes, mitre, palm	Beasts, fire and beheaded.
Januarius . .	303	Italian . .	Bishop of Benevento	Naples, <i>vz.</i> volcanic eruptions . . . . .	Books, lion, skull.	Beheaded.
Jerome . . .	420	Dalmatian	Scholar. Translator of Vulgate	Learning, theology, students	Aged Jew.	Beheaded.
Joachim . .	B. C.	Hebrew . .	Father of Virgin	Florence . . . . .	Camel's hair garment, reed cross, scroll	"Sleep not death." Exposure.
John the Baptist	30	Hebrew . .	Preacher, prophet, Baptist	. . . . .	Eagle, pen, book, sacramental cup with serpent	Natural.
John Evangelist	99	Hebrew . .	Apostle, Evangelist, prophet	Antioch. Greek and Latin Churches	Represented as savage man, crawling on all fours, throne and writing	Roasted.
John Chrysostom	407	Antioch . .	Preacher . . . . .	. . . . .	Rod in bloom, dove, carpenter tools, gray tunic, saffron mantle	Natural.
Joseph . . .	. .	Hebrew . .	Mary's husband. Carpenter	. . . . .	Chalice (Holy Grail).	Plague.
Joseph of Arimathea	. .	Hebrew . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Pomegranate and cross, beggars, dark brown tunic.	Natural.
Juan de Dios	1550	Portuguese .	Shepherd, soldier, pilgrim, priest	Charitable institutions	Disfoul of money, cross, gridiron, flames on deacon's robe, palm	Roasted.
Lawrence . .	258	Spaniard . .	Archdeacon, martyr	Nuremberg, Escorial, Geneva	Armour and rosary, glory . . .	Natural.
Leopold of Austria	1136	Austria . .	Margrave, prince, saint	Austria . . . . .	Crown of thorns, royal crown, sword	Plague.
Louis of France (IX)	1270	French . . .	King, legislator, crusader	France . . . . .		



St. Jerome, Dürer  
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St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin  
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Lucia . . .	303	Sicily . . .	Maiden . . .	Syracuse, diseases of the eye, labouring poor	Eyes on dish, poniard or awl, light, palm	Tortured and stabbed.
Luke . . .	.	Hebrew . .	Apostle, Evange- list, doctor painter	Physicians, painters .	Ox (winged), book, portrait of Virgin	Crucified (?).
Margaret . .	306	Antioch . .	Virgin and martyr	Women in childbirth.	Dragon and palm, cross, some- times pearls and daisy	Beheaded
Mark . . .	68	Hebrew . .	Apostle, Evange- list	Cremona Alexandria, Venice .	Bishop robes, lion (winged)	Dragged.
Martha . . .	84	. . . . .	Sister of Mary and Lazarus	Cooks and housewives, Tarascon	Cooking utensil, dragon, pot of water	Natural.
Martin of Tours	397	(Pannonia) or French	Soldier, bishop of Tours	drunkards, Tours, Lucca	Cloak, sword, beggar, goose or sacerdotal garb	Natural.
Mary of Egypt	433	Egypt . . .	Sinner and peni- tent	. . . . .	Old, worn, wasted, three loaves of bread	Natural.
Mary Mag- dalen	68	Hebrew . .	Sinner and peni- tent	Provence and Mar- seille. Frail and peni- tent women	Golden hair, jar of ointment, skull, crucifix	Natural.
Matthew . .	90	Hebrew . .	Apostle, Evange- list	. . . . .	Purse, pan, book, attendant angel	Beheaded.
Matthias . .	286	Hebrew . .	. . . . .	Cologne, Savoy, Pied- mont, Austria,	Lance or axe.	Slain.
Maurice . .	286	Thebes . .	Captain of The- ban Legion	Mantua souls	Armour, standard, palm, some- times red cross	
Michael . . .	.	. . . . .	Archangel . . .	France, good counsel, Children, sailors,	Wings, armour, dragon, sword, lance, chain.	Natural.
Nicholas of Myra	356	Myra (Asia Minor)	Priest . . . . .	traders, Russia, Bari, Venice, Friburg, robbers, losses by violence	Three balls, books, bishop's robes	
Patrick . . .	469	Briton and Roman	Bishop, misson- ary, Apostle . . .	Ireland . . . . .	Hooded gown, girdle, staff, wallet, standard, Gospel, serpents.	Beheaded.
Paul . . . .	67	Hebrew . .	Apostle . . . . .	Protestant Church . .	One or two swords. Next to Virgin or Saviour enthroned	Crucified head down.
Peter . . . .	67	Hebrew . .	Apostle, fisherman	Roman Catholic Church	Fish, keys, cross, cock, blue or green tunic, yellow mantle	

List of the Principal Saints — *continued*

Saint	Date	Birthplace or Nationality	Profession	Patron, Protector, and Founder	Characteristics and Attributes	Mode of Death
Philip . . .	. .	Hebrew . .	Deacon . . . .	Brabant, Luxembourg	Cross, middle-aged, scanty beard, staff or crozier	(Crucified) stoned.
Raphael . .	. .	. . . . .	Archangel . . . .	Guardian Angel, travelers	Pilgrim's garb, staff, sword, casket (with fishy charm), sword.	
Roch . . .	1327	French . .	Philanthropist . .	Prisoners, plague-stricken and sick	Cockle shell, staff, wallet, plague-spot and dog	In prison.
Rosalie of Palermo	1160	Sicily . . .	Virgin of noble birth	Palermo, <i>vs.</i> pestilence	Cave, cross, crucifix, brown tunic.	
Sebastian . .	288	French . .	Commander of Pretorian Guard	Italian women, pestilence	Bound, pierced with arrows, angel with palm and crown	Shot with arrows.
Simon and Jude	. .	Hebrews . .	Apostles . . . .	. . . . .	Saw, halbert or lance . . . .	Martyred.
Stephen . .	33	Hebrew . .	Promartyr, deacon	. . . . .	Young, beardless, deacon's robe, palm, stones	Stoned.
Theresa . .	1582	Spanish . .	Abbess. Barefoot Carmelites	Second patron saint of Spain	Flame-tipped arrow in breast, dove, corpulent, infirm	Illness.
Thomas à Becket	1170	English . .	Bishop, saint, martyr	Canterbury . . . .	Episcopal robes (name inscribed)	Murdered.
Thomas Didymus	. .	Hebrew . .	Apostle, fisherman, doubter	Portugal, Parma . .	Builder's rule or square. As martyr, lance, virgins, girdle	Pierced with lance.
Thomas Aquinas	1274	Italian . .	Priest, theologian	Learning . . . . .	Books, pen, sacramental cup, sun on breast, or eye, dove.	
Thomas (Vilanova)	1555	Spaniard . .	Bishop, almoner	Spain. Poor . . . .	Open purse, kneeling poor, crozier.	
Ursula . . .	237	English . .	Princess . . . .	Young girls, teachers, (women)	Crown, staff, arrow, dove, mantle sheltering virgins	Martyred.
Veronica	. .	Hebrew . .	. . . . .	Foundling Asylums . .	Napkin with head of Christ.	
Vincent de Paul	1660	French . .	Priest, Sisters of Charity	Germany, dancers and actors, <i>vs.</i> nervous diseases, sloth	Franciscan habit, habile, sick, benevolent expression.	Old age.
Vitus . . .	303	Sicily . . .	. . . . .	Saxony, Bohemia and Sicily. Russia	Palm, caldron of oil, lion, wolf, cock	Martyred.
Vladimir . .	1015	Russian . .	King . . . . .		Royal insignia.	

## Principal Names and Events in Bible History

## APPROXIMATE DATES

B. C.		B. C.	
4004	Creation. Fall of Adam and Eve. Promise of Saviour.	1739	Jacob returns to Canaan.
4002	Cain born.	1729	Joseph sold as slave.
4001	Abel born.	1716	Joseph interprets Pharaoh's dream.
3875	Cain murders Abel.	1706	Joseph's kin settle in Egypt.
3874	Seth born.	1689	Jacob foretells the Messiah, dies.
3382	Enoch born.	1636	Joseph dies.
3317	Methuselah born.	1574	Aaron born.
3074	Adam dies.	1571	Moses born.
3017	Enoch translated.	1531	Moses flees to Midian.
2962	Seth dies.	1491	Moses called to deliver Israel.
2948	Noah born.	1491	Exodus. Passage of Red Sea.
2468	Deluge announced. Noah preaches 120 years.	1490	Law delivered on Sinai.
2348	Methuselah dies. Noah enters ark.	1452	Miriam dies.
2347	Deluge. Noah leaves ark. Sacrifice.	1452	Aaron dies.
2234	Babel built. Confusion of tongues. Dispersion.	1451	Moses dies.
2234	Nimrod and Babylonian or Assyrian monarchy.	1451	Israelites pass Jordan and take Jericho.
2188	Mizraim founds Egyptian monarchy.	1443	Joshua dies.
1998	Noah dies.	1425,	or 1180-1020 Government of Judges. Death of Sisera, Song of Deborah, Gideon's fleece, etc. Death of Abimelech, Jephthah's daughter. Story of Ruth.
1996	Abraham born.	1155	Samuel born.
1936	Abraham called to leave Chaldea.	1116	Eli dies. Aphek battle.
1921	Abraham leaves Chaldea.	1095,	or 1020-1002 Saul anointed king.
1913	Abraham's victory. Rescue of Lot.	1085	David born.
1910	Ishmael born.	1063	David slays Goliath.
1897	Circumcision instituted. Destruction of Sodom, etc.	1055,	or 1002-970 Saul defeated, dies. David king.
1896	Isaac born.	1048	Race of Saul exterminated.
1871	Abraham offers Isaac to God.	1014,	or 970-930 David dies. Solomon king.
1859	Sarah's death.	1004	Solomon's Temple finished.
1856	Isaac marries Rebekah.	975,	or 930 Death of Solomon. Rehoboam king. Realm divided into Kingdoms of Judah and of Israel.
1836	Birth of Esau and Jacob.		
1821	Abraham dies.		
1759	Jacob visits Laban, marries Leah and Rachel.		
1746	Joseph born.		

# 30 HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE

Prophets of Judah	Kings of Judah	B. C.	Kings of Israel	B. C.	Prophets of Israel
Shemiah . . .	Rehoboam . . .	930-920	Jeroboam . . .	930-917	Man of God from Judah
Oded . . .	Abijah . . .	920-917	. . . . .	. . . . .	Abijah
Azariah . . .	Asa . . . . .	917-874	Nadab . . . . .	. . . . .	
Hanani . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Baasha . . . . .	917-915	
Jehu, son of Hanani }	. . . . .	. . . . .	Elah . . . . .	915-872	
	. . . . .	. . . . .	Zimri . . . . .	890-890	
	. . . . .	. . . . .	Omri . . . . .	890-875	Elijah
	Jehoshaphat . . .	874-849	Ahab . . . . .	875-853	Micaiah
Eliezer . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Ahaziah . . .	853-851	Elisha
Jahaziel . . .	Jehoram . . . . .	849-844	Joram . . . . .	851-843	
	Ahaziah . . . . .	844-842	Jehu . . . . .	843-815	
	Athaliah . . . . .	842-836	Jehoahaz . . .	815-802	Jonah
Zechariah, son of Jehoiada }	Joash . . . . .	836-797	Joash . . . . .	802-782	
	. . . . .	. . . . .	Jeroboam II. . .	782-741	Hosea
	Amaziah . . . . .	797-778	Zachariah . . .	741-740	Amos
Zechariah . . .	Azariah . . . . .	778-740	Shallum . . . .	740-738	
			Menahem . . . .	738-737	
			Pekaniah . . . .	737-736	
			Pekah . . . . .	736-734	
Isaiah . . . .	Jotham . . . . .	740-736			
Micah . . . .	Ahaz . . . . .	736-727			
			Hoshea . . . . .	734-722	Oded
Nahum . . . .	Hezekiah . . . .	727-695	End . . . . .	722	
Joel . . . . .	Manasseh . . . .	695-641			
	Amon . . . . .	641-639			
Jeremiah . . .	Josiah . . . . .	639-608			
Habakkuk . . .	Jehoahaz . . . .	608-607			
Zephaniah . . .	Jehoiakim . . . .	607-597			
Ezekiel . . . .	Jehoiachim . . . .	597-588			
Daniel . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .			
Obadiah . . . .	Zedekiah . . . .	588			
	Jerusalem des. . .	586-536	Exile		
Haggai . . . .	Zerubbabel . . .	536			
Zechariah . . .	Ezra . . . . .	457			
Malachi . . . .	Nehemiah . . . .	445			

B. C.  
 536 Return of Jews.  
 534-516 Temple building begun, suspended, renewed, dedicated.  
 483 Artaxerxes I. Policy of conciliation.  
 445-432 Nehemiah's first and second visit.  
 415 Death of Nehemiah.

B. C.  
 415-167 High priest rule.  
 373 High priest murdered. Persian interference.  
 350 Syrian revolt. Artaxerxes III destroys temple.  
 341 Jaddua, high priest.  
 333 Issus. Persian Empire overthrown. Alexander master of Jerusalem.



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| <p><b>B. C.</b><br/> 323 Judea a part of Syrian satrapy.<br/> 320 Conquest of Jerusalem under Ptolemy Lagus.<br/> 314-302 Judea a Syrian province.<br/> 302 Judea retaken by Ptolemy Lagus.<br/> 294-280 Judea a Seleucid province.<br/> 280 Septuagint version of Bible under Ptolemy Philadelphus.<br/> 219 War between Antiochus the Great and Ptolemy Philopator. Jerusalem pillaged, temple profaned.<br/> 204-198 Judea passes from Ptolemaic to Seleucid rule.<br/> 176 Heliodorus attempts to rob temple.<br/> 175 Greek gymnasium established.<br/> 172 Priestly quarrels. Secular interference. Temple defiled.<br/> 167-70 A. D. Rule of Maccabees.<br/> 167-166 Mattathias (Maccabeus) heads Jewish revolt.<br/> 166-161 Judas (Maccabeus); battles: Emmaus, Bethzur, Bethhoron, Elasa.<br/> 161-142 Jonathan (Maccabeus).<br/> 142-135 Simon (Maccabeus) takes Judea from Syria.</p> | <p><b>B. C.</b><br/> 135-105 John Hyrcanus (Maccabeus). Era of power.<br/> 105-104 Aristobulus (Maccabeus).<br/> 104-79 Alexander Jannaeus (Maccabeus). Civil war.<br/> 79-69 Hyrcanus II.<br/> 69-63 Aristobulus II. Roman intervention. Pompey takes Jerusalem.<br/> 63-43 Judea tributary to Rome. Several rulers precede Herod, who becomes "King of the Jews," restores the Sanhedrim, rebuilds temple.<br/> 4 Birth of Jesus Christ.<br/> A. D. Herod, Antipas, Archelaus rule.<br/> 6 Judea a Roman province.<br/> 26 Four Roman procurators precede Pontius Pilate.<br/> 29 Jesus' ministry begun.<br/> 33 Crucifixion.<br/> 66 Eleven procurators between Pontius Pilate and Florus, under whom Jews revolt.<br/> 68-70 Siege of Jerusalem. Titus enters city. Temple destroyed. Triumph of Titus where the seven-branched golden candlestick figures.</p> |
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## Elementary Reading

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**Pyramids of Gizeh and the Nile**

pp. 38, 385, 449



Acropolis, Sardis, Asia Minor  
pp. 42, 372

## IV

### ANCIENT HISTORY

ON reading the heading of this chapter you may exclaim that you studied ancient history some time during your school years, that you found it then rather dry, and that as you do not intend to include in your trip either the Tigris-Euphrates Basin or even, perchance, the Holy Land and Egypt, you can pass over this subject at present, reserving its study for a more opportune time.

Still, a great authority truthfully states that "it is difficult to say how much of our present culture is not owed to the stunted, oblique-eyed people of ancient Babylonia." In the course of your reading and travels it will more and more be made evident to you that all our boasted civilization is but a matter of evolution, that nation after nation has risen, become supreme, and declined, and that all the links in the chain of progress have their special use and meaning. Unless, therefore, we wish to drop out entirely one of the very first links of this chain, we cannot pass by the history, literature, or art of the ancient Chaldeans, Assyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, for they supplied the rudiments of all we know and are.

Of course most of the culture we derive from them came to us through the Jews and Greeks, having meantime undergone sundry transformations which, to the eyes of the uninitiated, makes it appear a totally different thing.

Recent excavations have proved that in 4500 B. C., the earliest positive date secured up to the present time (although some archæologists claim that they can go back to 7000 B. C.), the people of the Tigris-Euphrates valley had not only a fixed religion, with wonderful tower-

temples and learned priesthood, but palaces adorned with paintings and sculptures which still awe and delight us. They could also boast fortified cities, threaded by rivers and canals flowing between masonry embankments, either spanned or undermined by bridges and tunnels, and a country made fertile by a clever system of irrigation, which, were it only restored, would again make this region one of the "garden spots" of the world.

In the great cities and temples were vast libraries, with thousands of volumes written on papyrus or stamped on soft clay tablets which were afterwards fired. In those days books must have been hawked in Babylonian streets somewhat in this fashion: "Just baked, still hot, the latest work of So and so!"

Most of the papyrus rolls have fallen to pieces, but the clay tablets, being weather proof, have not deteriorated, and have been recovered in great quantities. Since then, learned men, by much patient effort, have succeeded in deciphering many of these records, and we now know beyond possibility of a doubt that before the days of Abraham the people in this region had grammars, dictionaries of the various languages spoken, collections of myths and poems, deeds and bills of sale, and even works of fiction. One brick of 2200 B.C. bears the earliest love-letter on record, which runs as follows: "May the sun of Marduk give thee eternal life. I would fain know if thy health is good. Send me a message so that I may be informed of it. I am at Babylon and cannot see thee, and therefore am very anxious. Send me a message to tell me when thou wilt come, so that my heart may rejoice. Come in the October-November month. Mayest thou live long, so that I may enjoy thy love."

Although of such remote antiquity, the real study of ancient history is essentially modern; for it is only within comparatively recent years that the excavations of Messrs. Layard, Botta, Young, Rawlinson, Peters, Hilprecht, and others, have brought to light much of the material which either confirms or confutes what

we have hitherto learned about these pioneers of our civilization.

In visiting the mounds covering the sites of the ancient cities of Nineveh and Babylon, or even of the Tower of Babel, learned excavators came upon wonderful palaces and great walls, which, of course, they could not remove. But all the statues, bas-reliefs, gems, cylinders, clay tablets, etc., which it was possible to carry away, have been conveyed principally to the British Museum in London or to the Louvre in Paris, which thus boast of the most complete collections of these treasures which the world has hitherto seen.

If you wish, therefore, to glean even an elementary knowledge of Assyrian, Babylonian, or Egyptian art, it is impossible to do so satisfactorily without visiting intelligently these wonderful storehouses, where learned men are constantly at work, recovering lost languages by painstaking efforts, and giving us the benefit of their studies by translating the inscriptions on the monuments and the information on the clay tablets.

In the British Museum, for instance, you can see the world-famous Rosetta Stone, discovered in 1799 near one of the mouths of the Nile by a French engineer. A battered fragment of black basalt, this 2 × 3 foot stone contains a threefold inscription, dated 195 B. C. The fact that the same matter was recorded there in the priestly Egyptian (hieroglyphics) and in the common Egyptian (demotic), as well as in Greek, enabled the Englishman Young, and especially the Frenchman Champollion, to discover the key which has since enabled others to read the most important inscriptions on the Egyptian monuments and the contents of many of the papyrus rolls. A fair idea of the antique literature thus recovered can be gained from the pages devoted to it in Warner's Library of the World's Best Literature, or in some compilation of similar scope.

Until Napoleon's expedition to Egypt, in 1798, Eastern art had been wellnigh forgotten for many years. Napoleon, that born spoiler, wishing to secure the choicest

treasures from all parts of the world to enrich and adorn Paris, was always accompanied by a corps of experts in all branches of science and art. Whenever a fight was pending, these non-combatants were placed with the baggage of the army in a hollow square formed by the troops, so that the blunt soldierly order, "Savants and asses to the centre!" is a matter of history. As soon as all danger was over, however, these learned men resumed a more dignified status, and pronounced arbitrarily not only upon the treasures to be removed, but also upon the methods to be employed to transport them safely.

But even previous to Napoleon's time, and indeed until within very recent years, Egypt and all the East were considered a sort of happy hunting-ground, whence conquerors and travellers alike brought home any curiosity they could secure, from an obelisk or royal mummy to a scarab or even a potsherd! By this time, however, the various Eastern governments have become sufficiently enlightened to realise what treasures they own, and have begun to guard them jealously, so that no more shall pass out of their keeping. They also have local storehouses—such as the Boulak Museum at Cairo—where all "finds" are now placed as soon as discovered.

It was during the long centuries of spoliation that the countless mummies, sarcophagi, seals, gems, statues, bas-reliefs, etc., which are found in our museums were exported, as well as the obelisks adorning the squares and parks of Rome, Constantinople, Paris, London, and even New York.

All about these treasures becomes a matter of interest, even the methods employed to transport and set them up. As a mere sample of the latter take the well-known anecdote of the erection of the great obelisk at Rome under Pope Sixtus V. It seems that the people were desirous of seeing this feat performed, but that the architect Fontana feared lest the noise of a crowd might distract his workmen and prevent their hearing



and executing his orders with the promptitude which the case required.

The Pope, however, ingeniously satisfied both people and architect by allowing the Romans to view the unwonted sight, provided they neither moved nor uttered a sound between given signals. To emphasise this order, Sixtus added the death penalty for any mortal rash enough to infringe it. All went well ; the silent, expectant multitude saw the huge monolith slowly rise toward the perpendicular. But just before that final point was reached, and while it was still at a dangerous angle, the hempen ropes began to relax, and the despairing architect saw the moment when, giving way entirely, they would let the obelisk fall back upon the pavement, where it would be dashed to pieces.

Just then the breathless silence was broken by the hoarse tones of a sailor calling out, "Wet the ropes!" A flash of comprehension lighted up the architect's face, water was quickly dashed upon the ropes, which, becoming taut once more, drew the obelisk safely into position. We are further told that, in view of the signal service rendered at a critical moment, the Pope forgave the sailor, and the obelisk still stands there to recall this picturesque episode.

Besides the genuine antiques in a few favoured museums, there are clever plaster and papier-maché reproductions of the most famous specimens, to be found in all important art collections. Genuine antiquities have also found their way into many private collections, — especially in England, — where they can be seen on certain days, or by complying with trifling formalities, which, as a rule, guide books explain.

Aside from antiquities, restorations, casts and models of palaces and temples, there are quite a large number of famous modern paintings, illustrating striking episodes in ancient history. These are valuable not only for their beauty, but often also for the minute study of the history and times which they recall to our memory.

Among such works — to quote a few modern examples

— are the wonderful compositions of Sargent and Alexander in the Boston and Congressional libraries, Long's "Babylonian Marriage Market," Lenoir's "Cambyses at the Siege of Pelusium," and the Count de Nouy's "Pharaoh and the Bearers of Bad Tidings."

If, after fair consideration of the subject, you still feel that there is no charm for you in ancient history or art, you may nevertheless find it useful to know about the wonderful agricultural industry, the mechanical ingenuity, and the advancement in science of nations in those remote ages. Also that medicine and surgery probably had their birth in Egypt, where the elaborate embalming process reveals many of the secrets of our anatomy; for it has been ascertained that many of our recent operations — such as that for appendicitis — were performed upon the ancient Pharaohs and their subjects.

Even the fact that grain found in the rock tombs germinated and bore fruit after five thousand or more years of interment is a matter of considerable interest. A slight investigation of the subject, therefore, is sure to repay the seeker a hundred times over.

## Approximate Chronology of Ancient History

### *Egypt.*

B. C.		B. C.	
4400-4135	Old Memphian Kingdom. Menea founder. Book of the Dead. This.	3533-3333	Fifth Dynasty. Pyramids of Abusir and Sakara. Elephantine.
4135-3900	Second Dynasty. Apis. This.	3300-3000	Sixth Dynasty. Pyramids. Tanis Sphinx. Queen Nitocris.
3900-3766	Third Dynasty. Step Pyramid. Sphinx. Memphis.	3000-2700	Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, Tenth Dynasties. Memphis declines. Thebes rises. Wall across Suez Isthmus.
3766-3533	Fourth Dynasty. 1. Seneferu; copper mines at Wadi Maarah. Pyramid of Medum. 2. Khufu. Great Pyramid. 3. Khaf Ra. Pyramid of Ur. 4. Men-kau-Ra. Pyramid of Her. Age of art and literature.	2700-2166	Eleventh Dynasty. Theban Necropolis. Amen Temple at Thebes. Voyages to Punt and Ophir.
		2466-2250	Twelfth Dynasty. 1. Amenemhat I. 2. Usert-

B. C.

sen I. Heliopolis obelisk. Enlarges Karnak. 3. Amenemhat II. 4. Usertsen II. 5. Usertsen III conquers Ethiopia. 6. Amenemhat III. Lake Moeris. Labyrinth, etc.

2250-1635 Thirteenth, Fourteenth, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth Dynasties. The so-called Hyksos Period.

1635-1365 Eighteenth Dynasty. New Theban Kingdom. 1. Aahmes I drives away Hyksos. Campaigns in Asia and Nubia. Mummy. 2. Amenhotep I. Temple, mummy. 3. Thothmes I. Campaigns: Libya and Euphrates. Mummy, obelisk, pylon of Karnak. 4. Thothmes II. Part of Medinet Abu. Statues. 5. Hatshepsu (queen), furniture, game, etc. 6. Thothmes III. Great conqueror. Megiddo battle. Karnak. Annals. 7. Amenhotep II. Columns at Karnak. Obelisk. 8. Thothmes IV. Statues. 9. Amenhotep III, avenue of Sphinxes. Temple of Luxor. Colossi. 10. Amenhotep IV. Tomb at Tel-el-Amarna, disk worship.

1365-1235 Nineteenth Dynasty. 1. Rameses I. 2. Seti I. Memnonium at Abydos. Osiris Temple at Abydos. Hall of Columns, Karnak. 3. Rameses II the Great (Pharaoh of Oppression). Temple and statues of Abu-Simbel, Ramesseum. Poem of Pentaur. 4. Menepthah (Pharaoh of Exodus). Battle of Protopsis. 5. Seti II. Sepulchre and temple.

1235-1075 Twentieth Dynasty. Rameses III. Great commercial prosperity.

B. C.

1075-945 First priest-king Heru. Solomon marries Egyptian princess.

945-750 Shishac (1 Kings xiv. 25-28) besieges Jerusalem. Hall of Bubastites at Karnak.

750-728 Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth Dynasties. Egypt conquered by Ethiopians.

728-655 Twenty-fifth Dynasty. Egypt and Tyre oppose Sennacherib and Esarhaddon. Memphis taken by Assyrians. Thebes sacked. End of Ethiopian rule.

655-527 Greek rule. 1. Psamthek I employs Greek mercenaries. 2. Necho defeats Josiah, is defeated by Nebuchadnezzar II. Circumnavigation of Africa. 6. Psamthek IV defeated at Pelusium by Cambyses.

525-405 Twenty-seventh Persian Dynasty. 1. Cambyses. 2. Darius, revolt. 3. Xerxes. 4. Artaxerxes. 5. Xerxes II. 6. Darius II. Series of Egyptian revolts.

405-399 Twenty-eighth Dynasty. Native.

399-378 Twenty-ninth Dynasty. Anti-Persian.

378-340 Thirtieth Dynasty. Defeats of Greeks and Persians. Revival of art.

340-332 Thirty-first Dynasty (Persian). Egypt reconquered.

332-323 Alexander rules Egypt. Alexandria.

323-30 Ptolemies in Egypt. 1. Ptolemy Soter, founder of library at Alexandria. 2. Philadelphus, builder of Pharos. 3. Euergetes, Stele of Canopus. 4. Philopator, founds temple of Edfu. 5. Epiphanes. Rosetta Stone. Ally of Rome. 6. Philometor. 7. Eupator, prisoner of Antiochus. Ptolemy XIV

## 40 HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE

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| <p>B. C.</p> <p>and Cleopatra. Murder of Pompey. Cæsar and Cleopatra, their son Cæsarion. Antony and Cleopatra. Actium.</p> <p>30 Egypt a Roman province. Roman emperors.</p> <p>B. C. 30-379 A. D. Egypt under Roman emperors. Under Constantine Arius A. D. preaches.</p> <p>395-610 Egypt under Byzantine emperors.</p> <p>629 Chosroes in Egypt.</p> | <p>A. D.</p> <p>640-1517 Egypt under Mohammedans (Arabs).</p> <p>1517-1798 Egypt under Turks.</p> <p>1798-1801 Napoleon in Egypt. French rule.</p> <p>1801-1803 Egypt under English.</p> <p>1805-1883 Egypt under Turks.</p> <p>1869 Suez Canal opened.</p> <p>1883-1905 Egypt under English control, great progress. Assouan dam, railroads, etc.</p> <p>1884 General Gordon slain at Khartoum.</p> |
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### *Babylonia.*

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| <p>B. C.</p> <p>7000 Civilization already advanced.</p> <p>4500 Nippur capital. Vulture stele.</p> <p>3900 Kings rule over Ur, Urech, Nippur.</p> <p>3800 Sargon I rules at Agade. Seals, inscriptions, tablets.</p> <p>3750 Naram-Sin. Campaigns. Temples.</p> <p>3200 Temple at Nippur.</p> <p>3100-3000 Capital at Erech.</p> <p>3000-2400 Cylinder and tablet records.</p> <p>2400-2312 War of Chedorlaomer (Abraham).</p> <p>2450-2150 First Babylonian Dynasty. Laws of Kammurabi. Five kings.</p> | <p>B. C.</p> <p>2150-1783 Second Dynasty. Eleven kings.</p> <p>1783-1207 Third Dynasty. Inter-course with Assyria and Egypt.</p> <p>1285-1270 Assyrian Invasion. Marduk prisoner.</p> <p>1223-1210 Babylonia wars successfully against Assyria.</p> <p>1207-1075 Fourth Dynasty.</p> <p>1135 Nebuchadrezzar I. Campaigns in Assyria, Syria, etc. Inscriptions.</p> <p>1110 Assyria conquers Babylon.</p> <p>1075-728 Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Dynasties.</p> <p>728 End of Old Babylonian Empire under Tiglath Pileser.</p> |
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### *Assyria.*

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| <p>B. C.</p> <p>? Assyria colonised from Babylon.</p> <p>3000 Nineveh in existence.</p> <p>1830-1120 First period of Assyrian Empire.</p> <p>1430 Battle of Megiddo, Assyria independent.</p> <p>1400 Correspondence with Egypt.</p> <p>1370 Partial conquest of Babylonia.</p> <p>1330 Shalmaneser I crosses the Euphrates.</p> <p>1290 Conquest of Babylon.</p> <p>1280 Assurnazirpal. Decline of Assyria.</p> | <p>B. C.</p> <p>1240 Babylonian Invasion.</p> <p>1210 Rehabilitation of Assyria.</p> <p>1220-885 Second Period of Assyrian Empire.</p> <p>1120 Tiglath Pileser I; annals, prism.</p> <p>1050-950 Dark Age. Decline of power.</p> <p>911 Struggle with Babylon.</p> <p>890 Northern conquests.</p> <p>885-722 Third Period.</p> <p>885 Assurnazirpal III. Conquests, Canal, Royal Palace (Nimrud).</p> |
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- B. C.
- 860 Shalmanezzer II conquers Syria. Jehu pays tribute.
- 823 War with Babylon.
- 811 Campaigns against Medes and Babylon.
- 782 Decline of power.
- 772 Campaigns against Damascus and Babylon.
- 752 Decadence.
- 745-606 Fourth Period. Conquests. Israelites pay tribute.
- 726 War against Hoshea of Israel and Shabak of Egypt. Siege of Samaria.
- 722-606 Dynasty of Sargonides.

- B. C.
- 722 Sargon II conquers Samaria and Babylon. Palace of Khorsabad. Records of Egibe Bank.
- 705 Sennacherib attacks Palestine. Pestilence.
- 689 Sennacherib destroys Babylon.
- 681 Esarhaddon destroys Tyre, takes Memphis.
- 668 Egypt rebels.
- 626-609 Scythian invasions.
- 609 Death of king in palace fire to escape captivity.
- 606 Nineveh, Khorsabad, Asshur destroyed. End of Assyrian Empire.

## *New Empire of Babylon.*

- B. C.
- 606 Nabopolassar. Canals. Temple.
- 604-562 Nebuchadrezzar's two sieges of Jerusalem. The Captivity. Tyre taken. Egypt invaded. Borsippa Temple.

- B. C.
- 562-555 Four kings. Under last (Nabodanius, Belshazzar of the Bible) Cyrus of Persia takes Babylon.
- 538 Babylonia a Persian province.

## *Persian History.*

- B. C.
- 750-521 First Dynasty.
- 559-529 Cyrus the Great. Conquers all Asia Minor. Takes Sardis, Babylon, etc. Allows Jews to rebuild Jerusalem.
- 529-522 Cambyses invades Egypt. Siege of Pelusium. Expedition to Ethiopia. Murder of Apis-bull.
- 522 Imposture of Gaumatas (false Smerdis).
- 521-518 Darius king. Invades Thrace. Ionian war. Sardis burned.
- 492 Mardonius' disaster at Mt. Athos. Marathon.
- 486 Revolt of Egypt.
- 485 Xerxes I. Egypt subdued.
- 480 Invasion of Greece. Thermopylæ, Artemisium, Salamis.
- 479 Plataea and Mycale.
- 478 Persia loses Ionian Islands.
- 465 Artaxerxes I. Rebellions and wars.

- B. C.
- 449 Cimon defeats Persians.
- 423 Darius II. Asia Minor revolts.
- 401 Cyrus at Cunaxa. Xenophon's Retreat of the Ten Thousand.
- 399, 378 Revolts in Egypt.
- 370-365 Asia Minor revolts.
- 336 Philip of Macedon's plans and death.
- 335 Alexander crosses Hellespont. Granicus. Mysia, Lydia, Caria, Lycia submit to him.
- 333 Issus and Amanus battles. Phrygia, Cappadocia, Cilicia, and North Syria submit.
- 332 Tyre taken. Phoenicia, Judea, Samaria, Egypt submit.
- 331 Arbela. Conquest of Assyria, Babylonia, Persia.
- 330 Bessus murders Darius.
- 323 Death of Alexander. Division of Empire.

*Lydia.*B. C.  
690 Gyges and Candaules.B. C.  
546 Cræsus.**Elementary Reading**

**Myers**, Ancient History, or any good high-school or college text on the subject; **Goodyear**, History of Art; **Warner**, Library of the World's Best Literature.

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## V

### GREEK HISTORY

**AFTER** ancient history that of Greece next claims our attention. That the primitive inhabitants of that country came from Egypt and the shores of Asia Minor seems an indisputable fact. Not only their traditions, but the earliest remains of pottery, their household utensils, war implements, ornaments, and even the first prehistoric buildings, bear witness to this origin.

The Greeks, being an essentially beauty-loving race, clothed their thoughts in poetical language, and strove to imprint perfection of form, at least, on all they did. Their religion, which had at the outset many points of resemblance with that of the ancient nations mentioned in the last chapter, therefore assumed a peculiarly graceful form, due both to their temperament and climate, — a form which has kept it alive, in an artistic sense, until to-day.

The nature-myths which form the basis as well as the bulk of the religion of all primitive peoples, became, in passing through the alembic of the Greek mind, dainty allegories, well fitted to serve as an inexhaustible mine of inspiration to all possessing poetical tastes or sensibilities.

From nature-myths — many of which are preserved for us in Hesiod's "Works and Days," as well as in other later Greek poems — the Hellenes proceeded to epics, of which they had several famous cycles. These epics, sung and recited by the rhapsodists, or travelling bards, were supposed to relate the adventures of sundry heroes and kings, whose origin is so mythical that they soon ranked as demi-gods.

Besides the twelve great deities of Olympus, with their

widely differing duties, characteristics, and attributes, and the host of lesser divinities haunting trees, springs, and the air itself, the heroes of such great mythic cycles as the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey*, the Argonautic Expedition, and the Labours of Hercules claim considerable attention, for all these confront us daily either in the form of works of art, as allusions in literature, or even as turns of speech — our verb “to tantalise” and noun “panic,” for instance, being both derived from Greek mythology.

Were we to do away with all the statues, paintings, poems, in short all we owe to Greek culture and influence, we should impoverish ourselves beyond all power of computation. And unless we know the names, functions, and attributes of the principal divinities, and can readily recall the salient points in the most noted myths and epics, we are at an utter loss in picture galleries, where one disappointed tourist ruefully remarked, “One half the pictures are about religion and the saints, and the other about mythology, and as I know nothing to speak of about either subject, I do not understand what they mean and am simply bored to death.”

It is seldom, however, that people are as ready to acknowledge their shortcomings; many sightseers prefer to assume that they know all about it, like the famous book-agent who, upon being asked what the Laocoön represented, airily remarked, “It was easy enough to see that it was a fireman all tangled up in his hose, though how he came to be so awkward as that, it was really quite impossible to explain.”

You lose an inestimable amount of pleasure if you cannot perceive at a glance, as it were, the hidden and allegorical as well as obvious meaning of the principal statues and pictures which you are likely to see. Still, to do so you must be familiar with the subject, for Greek myths serve as theme for nearly all the frescos adorning secular buildings, both ancient and modern, and being nature interpretations, are also admirably adapted for the adornment of fountains, groves, and grottos, as well as outdoor temples and kiosks.



The stories of Acteon and Narcissus, for instance, supply graceful motifs for the beautiful fountains of Caserta, near Naples, and of Aranjuez in Spain ; but unless quite familiar with the stories, much of the poetical charm of these groups of statues is lost, although their setting alone must always make them attractive.

If you love flowers — and who does not ? — many of your favourites will gain additional charms when you can readily recall the graceful allegories whereby the Greeks accounted for their colour, shape, and perfume. Thus the hyacinth, narcissus, rose, anemone, iris, sunflower, and laurel — to mention only a few of our familiar friends — are closely connected with Greek mythology, which has also left its indelible stamp upon geography, as is proven by such names as the Ionian and Ægean seas, by the Bosphorus Strait, and the Olympus Mountain, to enumerate only a very few of the names which a mere mention of the fact evokes.

It is, of course, next to impossible for any but a specialist to become master of all the intricacies of Greek (and Roman) mythology, but it is quite feasible for the general learner to acquire sufficient knowledge in a very short time not to find himself at an utter loss on entering a picture gallery. This elementary knowledge will, besides, serve as a foundation, and picture after picture will add its mite to our fund, which, small like the proverbial snowball at the outset, may in the course of our travels acquire most generous proportions.

In knowledge, as in other things, to him that hath, more shall be added. Given therefore a knowledge, however slight, and a desire to acquire more, you are safe to end your course having accumulated a store of information on the subject which will neither be fragmentary nor despicable. But if you know nothing about it and care less, you will pass, with unseeing eye, treasures which, rightly viewed, would have served as "a joy forever."

Aside from the consideration that it is a delight to know, — were it only for our own satisfaction, — each

item of knowledge makes us a more valuable unit in the nation, and may help to save us from some such blunder as that of the wealthy but illiterate lady who mystified all her better informed acquaintances by announcing that she had brought back from her travels a copy of an old master, called "Jupiter and Ten." We are told that all the ladies went to her first reception fully determined not to betray their ignorance, all their researches in classical dictionaries and mythologies having failed to cast any light upon the *ten* connected in some mysterious way with Jupiter. Imagine their surprise when they found themselves face to face with a copy of Correggio's "Jupiter and Io" !

Until you have studied Greek mythology and art you can also have no conception of the immense difference between the *nude* and *naked*, from the true æsthetic and artistic point of view. Unless things are in keeping they are ridiculous, as you will perceive when some fourteenth or fifteenth century artist dresses Paris and Helen in trunk hose, ruffs, and train ! People who have the right sense of beauty and delicacy can therefore gaze upon the "human form divine" without a blush, even though the traditional fig-leaf may have been omitted. And if you behold a pure composition and have none but pure thoughts in your own mind, it certainly will not rouse any others. You see it all depends upon the point of view, and one accustomed to see and love the beautiful in art fails to share the views of one of the characters in a recent novel who, in gazing upon a photograph of the Venus de Milo, dubiously remarked, "I don't deny but she's well made, I s'pose there be jest sech women, but I wish ter decency she'd h'ist her shift er leetle." Neither will he feel like the carpenter who, beholding a black marble Mercury in a lady's room, went off to comment publicly upon the taste of a woman who could keep a "naked nigger" on her book-case !

Concerning the "naked," which unfortunately also exists, there is but one thing to be said, — that is, shun it.

Familiarity with Greek mythology is necessary not

only for adequate comprehension of genuine Greek art, — which has never yet been surpassed, and of which we have many precious remains, — but also because the classic school of painting has always drawn the majority of its subjects from that source.

Even if you never go to Greece at all, you can nevertheless see many of the choicest specimens of its native art in the British Museum (London), the Louvre (Paris), the Glyptothek (Munich), the Vatican (Rome), and the National Gallery (Naples). These are, of course, only the greatest examples, and casts and other reproductions are simply legion.

Greek mythology is, besides, only a preliminary step toward Greek history, with its never dying charm, and that in turn creates an interest in Greek archæology, to which study recent excavations are daily adding a new incentive.

It is by the light of our historical studies that we are enabled to understand and appreciate the discoveries of Schliemann at Troy, and the more recent finds at Mycenæ and in Crete. The countless treasures in the shape of pottery and terra-cotta figurines, personal ornaments, gold death-masks, silver and bronze vessels, gems, coins, etc., which have been unearthed from time to time, and are now exhibited for the benefit of an admiring and appreciative public, are simply priceless.

Greek mythology, history, and archæology lead up naturally to architecture, sculpture, and painting, from whence we pass to the dramatic and literary wealth which this artistic and versatile people bequeathed us. Even should we never behold the Parthenon, crowning the Acropolis and facing the blue Ægean Sea, we may perchance gaze in the British Museum upon the wonderful frieze which once adorned it, and by studying pictures and models try to build up in our imagination as accurate a picture as possible of Athena's temple in all its glory.

In the same way we shall find in sundry European museums, statues and ornaments taken from famous

shrines, such as the remains from the famous Temple of Diana at Ephesus, or that at Ægina, and those from the Tomb of Mausolus at Halicarnassus (one of the "Seven Wonders of the Ancient World"). In fact, were an attempt made merely to enumerate and locate the treasures of Greek art scattered all over the globe, the remainder of the space in this book would scarcely suffice.

It is needless also to remind the reader again of the many modern pictures on Greek subjects, or of the assistance to be derived in the course of even preliminary investigation by reproductions of Greek masterpieces. As for the literature of Greece, it can always be studied in translations, should an inadequate knowledge of the classic language debar us from reading it in the original.

### Chronology of Greek History

B. C.		B. C.	
2089	Sicyon founded.	1326	Isthmian Games at Corinth.
2042	Uranus arrives in Greece.	1313	Kingdom of Mycenæ.
	Revolt of Titans. War of Giants.	1300	End of Hellenes' sway in Peloponnesus.
1910	Inachus comes to Greece.	1283	Pelops settles in Peloponnesus.
1856	Argos founded.	1263	Argonautic Expedition. Pythian Games.
1764	Deluge of Ogyges.	1225	War of Seven Chiefs against Thebes (Edipus).
1710	First Greek Colony to Magna Grecia (Italy).	1213	Amazonian War. Theseus kidnaps Helen.
1700-1550	Pelasgians in Peloponnesus.	1207-1104	Atridæ at Mycenæ.
1550	Hellenes in Peloponnesus. Cecrops comes from Egypt. Athens.	1198	Paris kidnaps Helen.
1504	Areopagus established.	1193	Trojan War begins.
1503	Deluge of Deucalion. Delphi.	1184	Troy taken and burned.
1495	Panathenaic Games instituted at Athens.	1182	Æneas' probable arrival in Italy.
1493	Cadmus founds Thebes in Beotia.	1123	Æolians build Smyrna.
1490	Lelex first king of Laconia (Sparta).	1103	Return of Heraclidæ.
1485	Danaus introduces ships and pumps in Greece.	1044	Ionians in Asia Minor.
1459	Reign of Hellen (Hellas, Hellenes).	962-927	Homer.
1453	First Olympian Games at Elis.	916	Rhodian Navigation Laws.
1384	Corinth founded.	850	Hesiod.
1356	Eleusinian Mysteries instituted.	846	Lycurgus gives laws to Sparta.
		776	Olympian Games revived. First Olympiad.
		750-650	Messenian Wars. Tyræus' generalship.
		683	Athens: nine archons.



Jupiter and Io, Correggio,  
Imperial Gallery, Vienna  
pp. 46, 406



B. C.

- 664 Naval battle between Corinth and Corcyra.  
 657 Byzantium founded.  
 655-581 Cypselidæ at Corinth (Temple).  
 632 Cylon's attempt to gain power in Athens.  
 626 Selinus founded.  
 600 Alcæus and Sappho at Lesbos.  
 600-590 First Sacred War.  
 590 Seven Sages: Solon, Periander, Pittacus, Chilo, Thales, Cleobulus, and Bias. Laws of Draco and Solon.  
 572 Æsop.  
 570-527 Pisistratus at Athens. Homer's poems collected.  
 559-556 Miltiades tyrant in Thrace.  
 544 Persian conquests in Ionia.  
 527-514 Hippias and Hipparchus, latter slain by Harmodius and Aristogiton.  
 510 Hippias driven from Athens.  
 508 Sybaris destroyed. Milo of Crotona. Ægina (Temple).  
 507 Cleisthenes' reforms.  
 506 Rivalry between Athens and Ægina.  
 504 Greeks burn Sardis and provoke Persian invasion.  
 500-479 Persian Wars.  
 496 Conquest of Thrace and Macedonia. Mt. Athos.  
 493 Themistocles, archon, fortifies Piræus.  
 491 Athens and Sparta resist.  
 490 Persians defeated at Marathon.  
 487 War between Athens and Ægina.  
 483 Aristides ostracised.  
 480 Xerxes' invasion. Leonidas at Thermopylæ. Artemisium, and Salamis.  
 480 Theron at Agrigento begins Temple.  
 479 Persians defeated at Platæa and Mycale.  
 479-431 Athens: supremacy and tyranny. Confederacy of Delos. Pindar.

B. C.

- 477 Athens' walls rebuilt. Pausanias takes Byzantium.  
 469 Cimon builds Theseum.  
 459-431 Age of Pericles. Parthenon. Jupiter (Olympia). Aristophanes. Æschylus, Thucydides, Herodotus, Sophocles, Phidias, Aspasia.  
 448 Second Sacred War.  
 446 Peace between Athens and Sparta.  
 437-432 Propylæa, Athens.  
 435 War between Corinth and Corcyra.  
 431-404 Peloponnesian War. Thebans attack Platæa. Rebellion of Mytilene.  
 415-413 Sicilian Expedition. Alcibiades.  
 412 Decelean War.  
 411 Fall of Athens. Long walls destroyed (404).  
 410 Selinus destroyed.  
 409 Erechtheum finished.  
 405 Ægospotami.  
 404-401 Thirty Tyrants.  
 404-371 Spartan supremacy.  
 400 Cunaxa. Retreat of Ten Thousand. Xenophon, Anabasis.  
 399 Death of Socrates.  
 394 Naval Battle of Cnidus.  
 393-387 Corinthian War.  
 387 Peace of Antalcidas.  
 371-362 Theban rise and fall. Leuctra and Mantinea. Death of Epaminondas.  
 364 Battle of Cyncephalæ.  
 356-346 Third Sacred War. Philip takes Phocian cities.  
 353 Ambitions of Philip of Macedonia. Demosthenes.  
 347 Death of Plato.  
 339-338 Fourth Sacred War.  
 338 Battle of Chæronea.  
 338-332 Macedonian supremacy.  
 336 Philip slain. Lysicrates Monument, Athens.  
 336-323 Alexander the Great. Aristotle. Danube campaign.  
 335 Thebes revolts. Destroyed by Alexander. Pindar.  
 334-331 Persian War. Granicus.

B. C.

- 333 Gordian Knot, Issus.  
 332 Siege of Tyre. Conquest of Egypt, Alexandria.  
 331 Arbela, Babylon, Susa, Persopolis, Ecbatana.  
 327 Alexander kills Clitus, marries Roxana.  
 326 Alexander in India. Hydaspes, Porus.  
 325 Nearchus' sea voyage.  
 323 Death of Alexander. Division of empire.  
 323-322 Lamian War or revolt of Greece.  
 301 Ipsus. Lysimachus, Thrace; Seleucus, Syria; Ptolemy, Egypt; Antipater, Macedonia.  
 287 Pyrrhus invades Macedonia. Archimedes.

B. C.

- 284-146 Ætolian and Achaian Leagues.  
 280 Gauls invade Greece.  
 216 First Macedonian War with Rome.  
 200 Second Macedonian War with Rome, Cyncephalæ.  
 200 Roman intervention in Greek affairs.  
 168 Third Macedonian War with Rome, Pydna.  
 147-146 Greece conquered by Mummius. Corinth destroyed.  
 21 Augustus visits Greece.  
 A. D.  
 96 Plutarch.  
 122-133 Hadrian visits Greece.  
 396 Alaric invades Greece.

## Principal Greek and Roman Divinities

Greek	Roman	Appearance	Attributes
Zeus . . .	Jupiter .	bearded man . .	sceptre, thunderbolts, victories, eagle.
Hera . . .	Juno . .	robed matron . .	sceptre, veil, household utensil, peacock.
Athena . .	Minerva .	armed virgin . .	helmet, lance, shield, Gorgon-head, serpent, owl.
Phœbus . .	Apollo . .	beardless youth .	lyre, sunbeams, sun-chariot, bow, laurel.
Artemis . .	Diana . .	short-skirted maid	bow, crescent, moon-chariot, deer.
Aphrodite .	Venus . .	nude woman . .	cestus, apple, doves, Graces, Loves.
Hermes . .	Mercury .	young man . . .	winged cap and heels, purse, caduceus (snake-twined wand).
Ares . . .	Mars . .	young warrior . .	armor, helmet, sword, spear, arrow.
Hephæstus	Vulcan .	deformed, bearded man	hammer, anvil, apron, Phrygian cap.
Poseidon . .	Neptune .	bearded man . .	seaweed crown, trident, sea-chariot.
Aidoneus or Hades	Pluto . .	bearded man . .	two-pronged fork, crown, chariot, hounds.
Dionysius .	Bacchus .	youthful man . .	crowned with vine and grapes, cup, wild beasts.
Demeter . .	Ceres . .	matron, robed . .	torch, horn of plenty, ears of grain, rudder.
Persephone	Proserpine	maiden . . . .	flowers, pomegranate.
Alcides . .	Hercules .	bearded athlete	lion skin, club, twelve labours.



## Elementary Reading

**Guerber**, Myths of Greece and Rome; Story of the Greeks;  
**Goodyear**, History of Art (Greek).

## Bibliography: Greek History

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## VI

### ROMAN HISTORY

IN 171 A.D., when the Roman Empire reached its height, its sway extended from Rome as a centre to the great wall between Scotland and England, to the utmost confines of the Rhine and Danube, to the Sea of Azov, to the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf, including also Spain and Portugal and running down to the desert line in North Africa.

There are, consequently, very few places visited by ordinary tourists where some traces of Roman occupancy cannot be found, and wherever one goes some knowledge of Roman mythology and history becomes imperative. A good elementary foundation is the first requisite, and such a basis once established, it is comparatively easy to extend one's knowledge in any special direction fancy prompts.

Derived from the same primitive sources as the Greek, Roman mythology had at first many distinct characteristics. But with the conquest of Greece in the second century B. C. and the resulting spread of Greek literature, art, and science, Greek religion overlaid the Roman so completely that it became almost impossible to disentangle the one from the other. For that reason the two mythologies are generally bracketed together, and as the Roman names are more frequently seen in art catalogues, we are more apt to speak of Jupiter, Juno, Venus, and Mars, than of Zeus, Hera, Aphrodite, and Ares, even when mentioning essentially Greek works.

There were, however, a few important Roman divinities which either had no exact counterpart in Greek mythology or at least failed to enjoy the same popularity in that country. Chief among these Roman divini-

ties were Saturn, Vesta, Janus, Lars, and Pales, all of whom were household words with the ancient Romans. Besides, it was customary, in Rome, to deify deceased kings, emperors, and ancestors ; in that fashion Romulus became Quirinus, the apotheosis of sundry emperors was a foregone conclusion, and ancestral worship, under the guise of Manes, became quite common. Roman festivals, also, such as the Lupercalia and Saturnalia, were characteristically national celebrations, and the numerous Roman triumphs had a ritual all their own.

Aside from literary allusions to the bygone religion of Rome, there are many interesting remains of ancient temples, as well as the statues, frescos, paintings, and other works of art which have survived the repeated sieges of the Eternal City, and the barbaric invasions of the peninsula, which serve to awaken keen interest in the subject.

While some knowledge of Roman mythology, history, and art cannot fail to prove of lasting benefit and interest in all parts of Southern and Central Europe as well as in Asia Minor and North Africa, in Italy in particular, and especially in Rome itself, such knowledge is absolutely indispensable to intelligent sight-seeing. There is, of course, aside from the rest, always a great deal of casual interest for even the most ignorant traveller in a foreign city, but those who have studied Rome thoroughly before leaving home will enjoy it most when once there.

In fact, the more thorough the knowledge the greater the interest ; but as it would require a lifetime of constant application to become absolutely conversant with every phase of its history, literature, and art, the majority of travellers must be content with a more or less superficial knowledge of the subject.

Many tourists labour under the impression that the best place to study Roman history is Rome itself. They are perfectly right ; study Roman history in Rome if you can remain there long enough to study it and see the city. But tourists who can spend a month, at most, in such a place are so absorbed by the multiplicity of things to be

seen that they either have no time to "read up," or are diligently perusing their Baedeker or other guide books when they should devote all their time and interest to the object itself.

Hare assures us that "those who arrive with the foundation already prepared, easily and naturally acquire, amid the scenes around which the history of the world revolved, an amount of information which will be astonishing even to themselves."

Visit Rome therefore with its *story*, at least, fresh in your mind, so that pictures, places, statues, and monuments will fit in, and serve, as they should, to make the past live again, and to fix in your memories what you have hitherto learned.

Recent archæological researches tend to demonstrate that many of the tales long discredited as mere myths have, after all, some historical foundation. In the museums you can see not only weapons of the stone age and primitive inhabitants, but Etruscan pottery, jewels, and other remains, which tend to prove that several centuries before the accredited foundation of Rome civilization was already far advanced in the peninsula. Indeed, there is abundant proof that Phœnician and Greek colonies were established in Italy in remote times, and even Virgil claims that Æneas and his band of Trojans, upon landing there after the burning of Troy, found the Latins in well-built cities and evidently far advanced in the scale of civilization, while their neighbours the Etrurians were even more progressive. It is this myth of Æneas and of his progeny which forms the great Roman epic—the *Æneid* by Virgil—which in Italy is fully as important as the *Iliad* in Greece. Refresh your memory, therefore, by re-reading the poem itself if you have time, or, if not, an outline, at least, of its story.

In spite of the twenty-seven centuries of vicissitudes which Rome has seen since its alleged foundation, we can still find traces of the various phases of its existence within its limits, where the so-called Tomb of Romulus has recently been found, and where we can still see the

Tarpeian Rock, whose traditions cover all the centuries between the early days of Rome, when the jailer's daughter was bribed by the Sabines, to more recent times, when Hawthorne gave it a new interest in his "Marble Faun."

The famous remains of the Royal period also include fragments of the Servius Tullius wall, the foundations of the Capitol, the Cloaca Maxima, and the Mamertine Prison, although our chief interest in the latter place naturally centres on the beginning of the Christian era, when Saints Peter and Paul sojourned there and converted their keepers.

The early days of the Republic are also vividly recalled by the view of the Sacred Mount, where the plebeians retired, the spot where Horatius defended the bridge, and that where Curtius sprang into a gaping chasm, as well as the ruins of the temple first erected to commemorate the aid given to the Romans by Castor and Pollux on the field of battle.

It was also in the early days of the Republic that Rome first became a prey to barbarians, and the Gauls, who sacked and burned it in 390 B. C., destroyed many priceless historical landmarks and archives.

The time of the Punic Wars marks rapid Roman extension, and at their close—and simultaneous with the destruction of Carthage,—come the final conquest of Greece and the spoliation of Corinth. Rome, having by that time won Carthage, Greece, and part of Spain, continued to stretch out greedy hands in every direction, until at last all the civilized world was in its powerful grasp.

The magnitude of Imperial Rome is recalled everywhere by traces of its former splendour; in the city itself by the Golden House, the Baths, the Pantheon, the Colosseum, the arches, columns, roads, etc., not to mention the numerous temples and sumptuous private dwellings. The fact that many of these structures are more or less ruined does not detract in any way from their interest, for when we pause to consider how many sieges and revolutions

the city has sustained, we wonder that any mementos of the past should still exist.

It was during the first centuries of our era, notwithstanding the many persecutions, that pagan Rome gradually became Christian Rome. Christianity was first tolerated, and then formally adopted as the state religion, temples were transformed into churches, and many traces of the old worship ruthlessly obliterated. The prisons where the early martyrs languished, the amphitheatres where they perished, the catacombs where their remains were interred, the traditional altar of St. Peter, and the Arch of Constantine (where the vision of the cross is depicted), are all mementos of this glorious phase of the past.

The Rome of crooked streets, hastily rebuilt after the Gauls had departed, the Rome which Augustus "found brick and left marble," was further embellished by him, until worthy to be the capital and centre of the civilized world. But the city, which had waxed as long as it was the centre of the government, rapidly waned when Constantine transferred his imperial seat to ancient Byzantium, which, new built by him, was henceforth to be known as Constantinople.

With the division of the empire into East and West, Rome fell into the hands of a series of weak, incompetent rulers, and her prestige diminished rapidly until in 476 the Western Empire gave a last flicker, and then went out under Romulus Augustus.

Rome, old Rome, with its classic traditions is gone, but it has left indelible traces, and it is these traces which we invite you to follow up, knowing that you will be amply repaid for any effort you make in that direction. They are to be found not only in the limits of the city itself, but wherever Roman legions camped and Roman eagles were borne.

# Chronology of Roman History

B. C.		B. C.	
12th cent.	Troy burned. Æneas' escape and adventures.	477	Death of the Fabii.
	Arrival in Latium. War.	458	Cincinnatus dictator.
	Cities founded.	456	Secular games.
753	Rome founded. Seven Hills, Palatine, Capitoline, Aventine, Esquiline, Quirinal, Viminal, Cœlian. Wall.	451	Decemviri. Virginius slays daughter. Suicide of Appius Claudius.
753-716	Romulus king. War with Sabines. Tarpeia episode. Circensian Games. Murdered. Quirinus. Tomb. Temple of Jupiter Feretrius.	440	Political reforms, famine.
715-673	Numa Pompilius. Aurgurs, vestals, calendar. Egeria. Steps of Cacus.	431	Wars with Veientes and Tuscans. Temple to Apollo.
673-640	Tullus Hostilius. Fight between Horatii and Curiatii. Ostia founded. Second Wall of Rome. Curia Hostilia.	396	Camillus takes Veii.
640-616	Ancus Martius. Wall on Aventine. Mamertine Prison. Pons Sublicius.	391-387	Camillus exiled. Allia. Gauls besiege Clusium and Rome. Rome burned. Camillus drives away Gauls.
616-578	Tarquinius Priscus. Capitol founded. Cloaca Maxima. Agger. Campaigns against Sabines, Latins, Etruscans.	387	Rome rebuilt. Capitoline games.
578-534	Servius Tullius. Wall. Temple of Fortuna. (S. Maria Ægyptiaca.)	384	Execution of Manlius Capitolinus.
534-510	Tarquinius Superbus. Temple of Spes. Capitol finished. Lucretia.	362	Marcus Curtius leaps into Forum abyss. Curtian Lake.
509	Royalty abolished. Aristocratic commonwealth.	350	Gauls defeated.
508	Junius Brutus and Collatinus consuls. Conspiracy. Execution of Brutus' sons.	348	Treaty with Carthage against pirates.
507	Capitol dedicated.	343-290	Samnite Wars. Via Appia. Aqueduct. Aqua Appia. Temple of Concord.
501-496	Latins and Tarquins make war, defeated at Lake Regillus.	330	Etruria subject to Rome.
494	Secession of plebeians, tribunes granted. Sacred Hill.	321	Caudine Forks.
491	Coriolanus banished for opposing agrarian law.	284	Gauls besiege Arezzo.
488	Volscians under Coriolanus, retreat from Rome. Temple of Castor and Pollux.	282-272	Pyrrhus' campaign. Battles: Heraclea, Asculum, and Beneventum. Aqueduct II.
		266	Rome mistress of all Italy.
		264-241	First Punic War. First Roman fleet. Mylae, Panormus, Drepana. Regulus' captivity, embassy, death. Truceless War and destruction of mercenaries at Carthage. Sicily, Corsica, and Sardinia annexed. Temple of Janus closed.
		228	First Roman embassy to Greece.
		225-222	Invasion of Gauls. Cisalpine Gauls annihilated.
		218-201	Second Punic War. Hannibal and Hasdrubal leave

## 58 HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE

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| <p><b>B. C.</b></p> <p>Saguntum, Spain, cross Pyrenees and Alps. Battles: Ticinus, Trebia, Lake Trasimenus. Fabian Policy. Cannæ; Syracuse falls. Capua, Metaurus, Zama. Cella; Temple of Fortune, Mater Matuta.</p> <p>215-168 Macedonian War; battles of Cynocephalæ, Magnesia, Pydna. Macedonia annexed. Temple of Juno Sospita, two temples of Jupiter.</p> <p>184 Scipio's tomb at Lilerum.</p> <p>167 First Public Library in Rome. Temple of Pietas. Em-porium pavement.</p> <p>149-146 Third Punic War. Masi-nissa, Cato. Siege and destruction of Carthage, Numantia, Corinth. Rome mistress of Greece, North Africa, Spain. Aqueduct III.</p> <p>135-132 Servile War in Sicily.</p> <p>133-121 The Gracchi, their life and death. Aqueduct IV.</p> <p>111-106 Jugurthine War.</p> <p>108-63 Mithridatic Wars. Mil-vian Bridge (Ponte Molle), Tomb of Cecilia Metella.</p> <p>102 Marius defeats the Teutons at Aquæ Sextiæ.</p> <p>101 Marius defeats the Cimbri at Vercellæ. Palace of Scylla.</p> <p>91-89 Social or Marsic War. Sieges. Temple of For-tuna Virilis (rebuilt).</p> <p>86-78 Time of Sulla. Chæronea. Proscriptions.</p> <p>78-60 Time of Pompey.</p> <p>73-71 Revolt of Spartacus and slaves. Piracy ended.</p> <p>65 Pompey conquers Syria, enters temple at Jerusalem.</p> <p>64-62 Catiline conspiracy and Cicero.</p> <p>60 First Triumvirate. Cæsar, Crassus, Pompey.</p> <p>58-51 Gallic Wars.</p> <p>55 Cæsar in Germany and Brit-ain.</p> <p>53 Crassus slain by Parthians.</p> | <p><b>B. C.</b></p> <p>50-48 War between Cæsar and Pompey, Rubicon. Battles of Dyrrhachium, Phar-salia. Death of Pompey in Egypt. Cæsar in Egypt. Alexandrian Library burned.</p> <p>47 Thapsus and Zela. ("Veni, vidi, vici.") Forum of Julius Cæsar.</p> <p>46 Death of Cato. Circus Maxi-mus.</p> <p>44 Cæsar refuses crown, is mur-dered.</p> <p>43 Second Triumvirate: Octavius, Antony, Lepidus. Death of Cicero.</p> <p>42 Battle of Philippi. Death of Brutus and Cassius. Mars Ultor Temple. Sal-lust.</p> <p>32-31 War between Octavius and Antony. Actium. Death of Antony and of Cleopatra. Basilica Pauli Emiliï. Theatre of Mar-cellus. Cloaca Agrippa, Aqueduct V. Tomb of Caius Cestus.</p> <p>30 Egypt a Roman province. Oc-tavius sole ruler.</p> <p>27 B. C.-14 A. D. Augustus Octa-vius emperor. Bridges of Æmilius and Cestius. Temple of Saturn. Virgil, Horace.</p> <p>13 Pantheon Portico, Agrippa. Two Egyptian Obelisks.</p> <p>5 Peace in world. Temple of Janus closed. Arch of Augustus. Forum Au-gustus.</p> <p>4 Birth of Jesus Christ.</p> <p>A. D. 9 Varus defeated by Her-mann at Teutoberg.</p> <p>9-18 Banishment and death of Ovid. Death of Livy. Dolabella Arch.</p> <p>14-37 Tiberius emperor. Death of Christ. Tyranny of Se-janus. Lupercal. Palace. Tiberius at Capri. Au-gustus' Temples.</p> <p>37-41 Caligula. Domus Caligu-læ. Obelisk. Aqueducts.</p> |
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| <p>A. D.<br/> 41-54 Claudius. Caractacus in chains at Rome. Drusus Arch.<br/> 54-68 Nero emperor. St. Paul in chains at Rome. Burning of Rome. Circus. Death of Seneca, Lucan, Peter, Paul. Rebuilding of Rome. House of Nero. Thermæ of Nero.<br/> 68-69 Galba, Otho, Vitellius, emperors.<br/> 69-79 Vespasian. Flavian Age 69-96. Jerusalem destroyed by Titus. Colosseum begun. Dacian War begun. Temple of Peace.<br/> 79-81 Titus. Destruction of Pompeii and Herculaneum. Death of Pliny the elder. Titus Arch. Thermæ of Titus. Temple of Vespasian and Titus.<br/> 81-96 Domitian. Conquest of Britain complete. Arch of Domitian.<br/> 96-98 Nerva. Colosseum finished. Forum of Nerva.<br/> 98-117 Trajan, expeditions against Dacians, Parthians. Column in Rome. Ulpian Basilica. Forum of Trajan. Temple of Trajan. Tacitus. Martial.<br/> 117-138 Hadrian. In England builds wall. Temples at Rome and Athens. House. Mausoleum and bridge. Suetonius, Juvenal.<br/> 138-161 Antoninus Pius. Column. Temple of Antoninus and Faustina.<br/> 161-180 Marcus Aurelius, philosopher. "Meditations." Church of S. Prudentiana, Column.<br/> 180-193 Commodus. Thermæ of Septimius Severus.<br/> 193-212 Barrack Emperors. Arch of Severus. Byzantium taken and destroyed. Wall of Severus, Britain.<br/> 211-217 Caracalla. Baths. Temple of Vespasian.</p> | <p>A. D.<br/> 217-235 Marcinus, Heliogabalus, Severus. Goths tributary. Attacks of Goths, Vandals, Alani, Suevi, etc. Church of S. Maria in Trastevere. Thermæ.<br/> 248 Pompey's amphitheatre burned.<br/> 250 Invasion of Goths. Catacombs of St. Paul and of St. Peter. Arch of Gallienus.<br/> 260 Valerian flayed by Sapor.<br/> 269 Goths defeated by Claudius II.<br/> 270 Goths receive Dacia.<br/> 273 Aurelian. Fall of Palmyra under Zenobia. Wall of Aurelian.<br/> 284 Era of Martyrs. Diocletian divides rule, retires to Dalmatia. Palace at Spalatro. Basilica Julia.<br/> 287 Franks cross Rhine, settle in Gaul.<br/> 306 Constantius dies at York. Maxentius Basilica and Circus.<br/> 308 Four emperors at once.<br/> 312 Constantine's vision of Cross.<br/> 313 Christianity proclaimed at Milan.<br/> 325 Constantine convokes council at Nicea. Mausoleum. Helena. St. John Lateran.<br/> 321-330 Constantine transfers capital to Constantinople (Byzantium). Arch, Thermæ.<br/> 337 Death of Constantine. Statue.<br/> 337-360 Sons of Constantine.<br/> 360-363 Julian the Apostate. Killed in Persian battle.<br/> 363 Jovian restores Christianity.<br/> 364-395 Stilicho and Alaric. Empire divided. 395-476 Western. 395-1453 Eastern.<br/> 395 Honorius.<br/> 379 Theodosius the Great.<br/> 404 Rome under Exarchate of Ravenna.<br/> 410 Alaric sacks Rome.</p> |
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A. D.		A. D.	
425-435	Valentinian.	553	Narses takes Rome, which is annexed to Eastern Empire.
451	Romans, Franks and Gauls meet Attila at Châlons.	568	Alboin. Lombard king.
455	Genserich sacks Rome.	590	Gregory I.
476	Odoacer takes Rome. Master of Italy. End of Western Empire.	600	Rome at low ebb.
493-525	Theodoric.	728	Rome independent under Popes.
527	Justinian.	755	Temporal power of Popes. Holy See given by Pepin of France. Taken from Lombards.
536	Rome taken by Belisarius for Justinian.	774	Charlemagne adds to Holy See.
546-549	Rome besieged and taken twice by Totila the Goth, once by Belisarius.	800	Charlemagne Emperor of the West at Rome.

## Elementary Reading

Guerber, Story of the Romans; Myths of Greece and Rome.

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**Hemans**, History and Monuments of Rome; **Hodgkin**, Dynasty of Theodosius; Italy and her Invaders; Charles the Great; **Hosmer**, Jews under Rome; **How**, History of Rome; **Howorth**, Westerly Drifting of Nomads; **Ihne**, History of Rome; **Inghe**, Society in Rome under Cæsars; **Jay**, Synopsis of Roman History; **Keightley**, History of Rome to End of Republic; **Kingsley**, Roman and Teuton; **Koch**, Roman History; **Lanciani**, Pagan and Christian Rome; Ruins and Excavations in Ancient Rome; Destruction of Ancient Rome; New Tales of Ancient Rome; **Lawton**, Introduction to Classical Latin Literature; **Lawrence**, Primer of Latin Literature; **Leask**, Marcus Aurelius and the Later Stoics; **Lechler**, Apostolic or Post-Apostolic Times; **Lecky**, History of European Morals to Charlemagne; **Leighton**, History of Rome; **Lewis**, Inquiry into Credibility of Early Roman History; **Liddell**, History of Rome; **Lloyd**, History of Sicily to Athenian War; **Long**, Decline of the Roman Republic; **Macauley**, Lays of Ancient Rome; **Mackenzie**, Studies of Roman Law; **Mahaffy**, Greek World under Roman Sway; **Mahon**, Life of Belisarius; **Mason**, Struggle for Empire; Persecution of Diocletian; **McKail**, Latin Literature; Rome and Carthage; **Merivale**, History of Rome under Empire; Roman Triumvirates; **Middleton**, Remains of Ancient Rome; **Milman**, History of Latin Christianity; **Mommsen**, History of Rome; Provinces of Roman Empire; **Morey**, Outlines of Roman History; **Morris**, Hannibal; **Myers**, History of Rome; **Nepos**, Lives of Illustrious Men; **Nichols**, Marvels of Rome; **Niebuhr**, History of Rome; **Oman**, Byzantine Empire; **Parker**, Archæology of Rome; **Pelham**, Outlines of Roman History; **Plutarch**, Lives; **Robinson**, First History of Rome; **Schlegel**, History of Literature; **Schuckburgh**, History of Rome; **Seeley**, Roman Imperialism; **Sellar**, Roman Poets; **Sheppard**, Fall of Rome; **Shumway**, Day in Ancient Rome; **Smith**, Smaller History of Rome; **Strachan-Davidson**, Cicero; **Taylor**, Constitutional and Political History of Rome; **Taylor**, Etruscan Researches; **Trollope**, Life of Cicero; **Warner**, Library of the World's Best Literature; **Wilkins**, Roman Antiquities; **Williams**, History of the Art of Writing; **Williams**, Historians' History, V, VI.

## VII

### FORMATION OF EUROPEAN STATES

AFTER the first division of the Roman Empire under Valentinian and Valens, the process of disintegration was accelerated by further barbarian invasions. In its annals we read that Rome itself was taken by Alaric in 410, by Genseric in 455, and by Odoacer in 476, and it is this last-named siege which marks the end of the so-called Western Roman Empire as well as of Ancient Roman History.

But Rome, in spite of vicissitudes, still endured. It was governed by its conqueror, Odoacer, the exarch stationed at Ravenna representing meanwhile the Eastern Empire, which continued to hold jurisdiction over part of the country.

Already thrice sacked by barbarians since the Christian era began, Rome was to know further and worse tribulations when it became a bone of contention between Totila the Goth, and the famous Imperial generals Belisarius and Narses. In the course of those seven years of warfare it underwent no less than six separate sieges, remaining at last in possession of the Imperialists, who annexed it to the Eastern Empire after abolishing its time-honoured Senate.

About fifty years after these accumulated woes, the fortunes of Rome seemed to reach their lowest ebb, for the manifold mishaps which had overwhelmed the city had so sapped its life and quenched its energies that the Romans, despairing of ever bringing order out of the chaos of ruins around them, actually contemplated forsaking their beloved city and settling elsewhere. Fortunately, however, the Pope then in office had sufficient

sense and authority to prevent a general exodus, and to rouse the dormant ambitions and energies of the inhabitants.

Although St. Peter was "the first bishop of Rome," — and according to the Roman Catholics the founder of the Christian Church, — the pontiff of Rome did not at first hold the influential position which he occupies to-day. Still, by the year 200, the bishop of Rome was not only "primate of the Christian Church," but often "the only source of order and justice in a distracted community."

The city, first under the nominal rule of one party, then of another, was so often a prey to utter anarchy, that it became comparatively easy for some of the clever bishops — or popes, as they were now called — to govern with almost despotic power. One of the masterful pontiffs, who laid a firm hand upon the rudder of the drifting ship of state, was Leo I the Great, and another, Gregory, also the Great. Not only did the former boldly meet the barbarians at the gates of the city, but the latter maintained his authority in times of pestilence as well as in civil war. We are even told that Gregory, having ordered a penitential and intercessory procession in hopes of checking a plague then raging, saw at its close the archangel Michael alight on the top of Hadrian's Mole, and sheathe his sword — the emblem of pestilence — in token that the Pope's prayers were answered and the scourge would cease. To commemorate this miracle, a statue of the archangel was placed above the monument, which ever since then has been known as the Castle of the Blessed Angel (Castello S. Angelo).

As if the depredations of the barbarians had not been sufficient, the Eternal City was further despoiled by Constans II, the first of the Eastern Emperors to visit Rome. He carried off many of its priceless treasures to adorn his capital on the Bosphorus, and thus set an example which was followed by many of his successors, who evidently viewed Rome in the light of a doomed

ship from whence it was best to bear away all one could save of the wreckage.

In the course of a century and a quarter — under the rule of some very efficient Popes — Rome not only rose again from its ruins and ashes, but actually erected half a dozen new churches, besides repairing and maintaining those already in existence. As yet, although city and vicinity were practically ruled by the Popes, there were no so-called Papal States, and hence no real claim to temporal power. This was to arise later, as we are about to see.

The Lombards — a German tribe called into Italy by Justinian to oppose the Goths — established a kingdom there in 568 under their leader Alboin. Not content with the section of Northern Italy which still bears their name, these new-comers aspired ere long to become masters of the whole peninsula. Seeing that the Eastern Empire could not afford any protection against the encroachments of these conquerors (who besieged Rome in 755), the Pope besought the aid of the Frank king Pepin. The triumphs of this king over the Lombards were surpassed, while his first donation of land to the Holy See was confirmed, by his son and successor, the great Charlemagne, who dethroned Desiderius, the last Lombard monarch (774). Then the conqueror himself donned the iron crown of Lombardy, a diadem of peculiar sanctity in the eyes of all good Christians, for it is said that one of the three nails used in the Crucifixion is imbedded in its rim.

In return for the signal services rendered to the Pope, whom he not only delivered from his enemies, but upon whom he bestowed all the rights, privileges, and estates of the Exarch of Ravenna, Charlemagne received the Imperial crown, thus becoming founder of the New Western Empire, or, as it was henceforth to be called, the Holy Roman Empire. His coronation, which took place in Rome in 800, marks a great epoch in the world's history in general, and in that of Germany in particular, for Charlemagne stands first in the long



Interior of St. Mark's, Venice  
pp. 67, 216



The Eruption of 1872, Vesuvius  
pp. 68, 224



series of German Emperors which extends from 800 to 1806, when the Holy Roman Empire came to an end, Napoleon having compelled the last holder of the title to style himself henceforth Emperor of Austria only.

Charlemagne followed Constans' example, and despoiled the Eternal City—as well as Ravenna and other Italian towns,—of many of their art treasures, so as to enrich his palaces at Engelheim, Heidelberg, and especially Aix-la-Chapelle, his capital and final resting-place.

Although Rome had its first real taste of Teutonic rule under Charlemagne, the Northern yoke cannot be said to have rested at all heavily upon the city until Arnulf took forcible possession of it in 896. In fact, most of Charlemagne's successors proved little more than figure-heads, appearing in Rome only for the coronation pageant, but Otto I's reign, with its new constitution, and Henry IV's siege of Rome, are new landmarks in its eventful history.

We have now reached the heart of the mediæval period,—the feudal age,—when, owing to the general state of anarchy, every man's hand was against his neighbour. The country fairly bristled with red brick towers, or other strongholds, all occupied by truculent nobles,—the robber-knights of Italy. Private quarrels, hereditary feuds, and petty warfare of every description abound, making the history of this epoch an almost inextricable tangle.

In fact, each principality and almost every city—for cities now become independent centres—has a history of its own, and if you wish to gain any accurate conception of the state of the country, these annals must be studied separately.

It is also during these years of turmoil and warfare that guilds are first formed, and rapidly assume such importance that they end by governing in the centres where they arose. Guilds were the labour unions of the middle ages. There were (1) ecclesiastical, (2) social-religious, and (3) trade and craft guilds, and it is the

latter, originating among people of Teutonic strain in Carolingian times, which ultimately took the lead in all the great mediæval cities, communes, or commonwealths.

Each trade guild was formed of all the artisans — masters, apprentices, and servants — of a certain trade, who were “pledged to assist each other in the pursuit of common ends.” They had guild or meeting houses, were subject to rules and regulations of their own, had systems of dues, fines, etc., which supplied necessary funds for their undertakings, and as “in union there is strength,” they soon found that they could exercise not only commercial monopoly, but a political power so great that the nobles had to give way before them, and thus city government came in time to be vested entirely in their hands.

While it is simply impossible even to mention the two hundred independent cities of Italy in the thirteenth century, brief sketches of the history of half a dozen will suffice to give you an inkling of the interesting events with which they are connected, and to convince you of the important part they play.

Beginning with the one farthest north, Milan, we hurriedly recall how it was founded by the Gauls in 408 B. C., taken by the Romans about two centuries later, and erected to the proud position of capital of the Western Empire in 286 A. D. It was here that the Council of Milan was held, and Christianity recognised as the state religion; here also that St. Ambrose flourished, before the days when the city fell a prey first to the Ostrogoths and then to the Lombards. After figuring as one of the principal Lombardian cities, it became the centre of Charlemagne's southern possessions, achieving independence only in 1101. But this new-won independence had to be maintained by force against the Emperor Frederic, who besieged and finally took the city. Although sacked and ruined by him, Milan recovered all its former prestige under Visconti and Sforza rule, falling into the hands of Louis XII, King of France,

in 1499, just before the close of the period we are studying.

Venice cannot boast of as antique an origin as Milan, for it was founded in 452 by Paduans fleeing from Attila, — the Scourge of God. In 697 Venice had the first of her illustrious series of Doges, in 829 St. Mark's remains were transferred to its keeping, in 997 it became independent, and immediately began to extend its territory in all directions. We are told that it was during the war of Crete (1204), that the Doge made use of carrier pigeons, not only to obtain information concerning the movements of his foes, but also to send news of his triumphs to Venice. These doves, duly honoured and tended by the grateful Venetians, became progenitors of the vast flocks which delight the tourists to-day. After a long series of wars with Genoa, Padua, Verona, Milan, and Naples, Venice, which had been paramount and Queen of the Adriatic, was virtually shorn of its commercial importance and glory by the disastrous League of Cambrai in 1508.

Genoa, the great rival of Venice, can boast of a more remote past, because it existed already in 115 B.C. It attained independence, however, only in 1000, — three years later than Venice, — and in 1070 began the famous feud with Pisa which was to last more than two centuries. The great names of Genoa are those of the Doria and Spinola families. Besides fighting with Pisa, Genoa kept up a great rivalry and warfare with Venice, many of their battles being waged on the sea, over which both republics wished to claim monopoly. In 1339 Genoa was first ruled by a doge, — a mode of government which endured there until the city became subject first to France and then to Milan, recovering its independence only when the sixteenth century was about to begin.

Pisa, the great rival and bitter foe of Genoa and of Florence, was founded in the sixth century B.C., and reached its highest point of prosperity at about the time when its famous Leaning Tower was erected (1154). Its prominence in the wars against the Saracens, — from

whom it wrested Corsica, Sardinia, and the Balearic Islands, — and the part it played in the Crusades and throughout the quarrels of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, served to bring it into a front rank. Besides, it could boast of its councils, and of its University, founded in 1343, which soon became famous, attracting hosts of noted pupils and teachers. Pisa was subject to France during the Italian wars of Charles VIII, falling again under Florentine sway in 1509.

Built by Sulla's soldiers in 80 B. C., Florence, in ancient Etruria, seems to have had a comparatively uneventful record until besieged and ruined by Totila in 541. Charlemagne is said to have rebuilt this city, which became a republic in 1198. Dante was born there in 1265, art-guilds began to flourish in the city a year later, the Bianchi (White) and Neri (Black) started their deadly feud in 1300. Then the Medici reached the height of their power and influence in 1420, giving a wonderful impetus to art and literature, while Savonarola, the great Italian reformer, was burned at the stake on its public square in 1498.

The oldest of the great Italian cities is undoubtedly Naples, founded 1000 B. C. by Greek colonists, who gave it the name of Parthenope, Naples, or Neapolis (the new city). It came under Roman rule during the Samnite Wars, 326 B. C., and was a favourite resort of many emperors. Lucullus feasted there, and its scenery inspired some of Virgil's most beautiful lines. This city has been subject not only to all manner of political troubles, but also to frequent natural cataclysms, such as earthquakes and volcanic eruptions, the most serious on record being that of 79, which buried Herculaneum and Pompeii so effectively that their very existence seemed mythical, until in 1713 the latter town was accidentally discovered, and in 1748 the vast excavations begun which were to restore long-lost treasures to the world. After four sieges by Theodoric, Belisarius, Totila, and Narses, Naples became a duchy, first subject to the Eastern Empire, then practically independent, — a state of affairs which lasted

nearly five hundred years. Then, after flourishing about a century, the Kingdom of Naples merged in 1131 into that of the Two Sicilies. A century's efforts on the part of the Hohenstaufens to bemaister this restive community ended by the Pope's bestowing it upon Charles Anjou (1266). The bloody episode of the Sicilian Vespers, and Joanna's adventurous career, were followed by the Spanish seizure of the city, from whence, after a few years of disputed possession, the French were driven out in 1504.

It was during the mediæval period of storm and stress that many of the nobles, following the example set by Constans and Charlemagne, began to dismantle the monuments of antiquity, for which they showed no respect whatever, viewing them evidently merely as convenient quarries whence they could obtain ready dressed materials to erect their own homes. Thus, every stone in the Farnese Palace — to quote only one out of many examples — was taken from the Colosseum or from the theatre of Marcellus. Years elapsed before these depredations were checked, and when we consider the lawlessness of the times, it becomes a matter of wonder that any of the antique buildings still exist.

The turmoils and cabals arising from Arnold de Brescia's attempts at reform drove the Popes to Avignon, in France, which from 1309 to 1377 became the seat of the Holy See. It was during this temporary absence of the Popes that Rome beheld the rise and fall of Rienzi, the romantic figure which Bulwer-Lytton styles "the last of the Tribunes."

Almost synchronous with the Pope's return to Rome — due to the intercession of St. Catherine of Siena — is the bitter rivalry of the Colonna and Orsini families, a feud which was to cause great turmoil and bloodshed. But the Pope's return also heralds the era of real papal sovereignty in temporal as well as in spiritual matters, for in 1500 the Holy See attained the supremacy in the Eternal City, — a position it was to maintain until 1870.

We have already seen how the Goths and Vandals

swept down into Italy, leaving such ruin in their wake that their names still stand as synonyms for wholesale destruction. The ravages of these barbarians were not, however, confined to Italy alone. France suffered equal losses at their hands, ere some of them settled south of the Loire, the remainder sweeping over the Pyrenees into Spain. Goth and Vandal kingdoms flourished in the Iberian peninsula, and from thence the Vandals crossed over into Africa, where they took possession of all the land once held by Rome. The capital of their African kingdom was established at Carthage (439), from whence it became comparatively easy to invade and conquer Sicily the following year. A half-century later the Goths came to supplant the Vandals in Africa, but they, in turn, were conquered by Belisarius (535), who allowed them to remain on the spot, subject to the Eastern Empire, until they were driven out of the country forever by the Saracens.

These new-comers, followers of Mohammed, within forty years after the prophet's death (632), contrived to conquer the greater part of Asia and Africa. From Carthage they also invaded Sicily, from whence they soon after reached the mainland, besieging Rome itself and taking possession of Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Islands, which they held for many years, and where we find many traces of their occupancy and art. Sardinia and Corsica were ultimately wrested from the Saracens by Pisa and Genoa, but Sicily remained in their possession until conquered by the Normans under Roger I., who became Count of Sicily in 1131. Then he founded a dynasty of kings of the Two Sicilies, which was supplanted, as we have seen, first by the French and then by the Spaniards.

The Saracens, not content with their triumphs in North Africa, Sicily, and the other large Mediterranean Islands, crossed the Strait of Gibraltar in 711, conquered all Spain, and after establishing a Caliphate at Cordova, proceeded to invade France. There their career of conquest was checked by the crushing defeat they ex-

perienced at Poitiers, or Tours (732), where Charles the Hammer saved Europe from Moslem dominion. Returning to Spain after this defeat, the Saracens maintained their position there, in spite of Charlemagne's invasion, attacking his rear-guard as he withdrew, and slaying Roland, the mythical hero of the great French epic. During the next two centuries we mark the gradual rise of the kingdoms of Castile and Aragon, which in time threatened the very existence of the Saracen realm, and it was also then that a Norman adventurer wrested Portugal from the Saracens, and began a new dynasty and kingdom in that region (1095).

Beset on all sides by the Christians, the Saracens — during the middle ages sole repositories of scientific knowledge — finally called the Moors from Africa to their aid. A period of warfare ensued, during which Rodrigo, the Cid, performed the heroic deeds for which he is renowned in Spanish song; then (1237) the Moors, supplanting their former allies the Saracens, founded the Kingdom of Granada. They constructed the matchless Alhambra, whence, however, they were driven by Ferdinand and Isabella in 1492, the very year Columbus discovered the New World.

The period between 476 and 1500 is therefore, as you see, the great formative period throughout South and Central Europe, because during that time the present nations gained possession of the lands they were to hold, and the French, German, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese languages gradually crystallised into permanent moulds. This age is also rich in architecture, sculpture, painting, and useful arts of all kinds, as well as in literature and science. Besides, the discovery of America and of a maritime road to India gave an immense impetus to commerce, and it was the influx of wealth both from the New World and from the East, which served to raise Spain for a brief time to the leading position in Europe.

Meantime the Eastern Empire, begun tentatively in 364 and confirmed in 395, attained its highest point of glory under Constantine, founder of its capital — and

Justinian, its great law-giver and the builder of the peerless new basilica of St. Sophia. During the reign of Justinian, and thanks to the talents and efforts of Belisarius and Narses, great triumphs were won in Africa, Italy, and the East. But jealousy of his general's glory prompted the emperor to recall Belisarius, and legend relates that the brave warrior was blinded and cast out to beg his daily bread.

The deaths of Belisarius and Justinian were followed by an attempt on the part of the Avars and Slavs to overthrow the Eastern Empire, and by the phenomenal rise and spread of the Saracens, who, not content with wresting Asia Minor and North Africa from the empire, besieged Constantinople no less than seven times between 672 and 677. Taking advantage of this confused state of affairs, the Bulgarians established a kingdom of their own (678), and also threatened Constantinople, which, five years later, was again invested by the persistent Saracens.

The Iconoclastic movement greatly added to the confusion of the times, and the Empire, after losing successively Asia Minor, North Africa, Southern Italy, the exarchate of Ravenna, Dalmatia, Sicily, and Crete, had a brief period of renewed glory, during which Southern Italy was won again and Bulgaria conquered.

But these triumphs were destined to be short-lived; the Normans soon seized all Southern Italy, and during the fourth Crusade Constantinople itself fell into the hands of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, — the founder of the Latin Empire (1204-1261).

From fragments of the great Eastern Empire, now nearly extinct, the Greek Empire of Nicea and the kingdoms of Epirus and Ætolia were formed, while the Moslems, or Turks, established their rule in Asia Minor under Othman I (1299). From thence these Turks proceeded to gain a foothold in Thrace, then seized Adrianople, defied the Paleologues who ruled at Constantinople (1261-1452), and, after securing Athens, making Constantinople tributary, and again vainly besieg-



ing that unfortunate city, Mohammed II finally took possession of it in 1452, after nearly two months' siege.

The Eastern Empire, whose glorious annals begin with Constantine I, ended with Constantine XIII, who was slain and his race deposed, his conqueror Mohammed II reigning in his stead as first sultan of Turkey.

The siege of Constantinople, its capture by the Turks, and the consequent dispersion of all the learned men and literary treasures accumulated within its walls, greatly furthered civilization and progress, thus paving the way for the Renaissance, or revival of arts, science, and literature which the sixteenth century was to usher in. But Constantinople itself, a progressive city as long as it remained in Christian hands, was overtaken by comparative stagnation when Moslem rule began there, and when the cross on the dome of St. Sophia was replaced by the crescent, the national emblem of the Turks.

### Chronology of the Popes

	A. D.		A. D.
Peter . . . . .	d. -67 ?	Eutychianus . . . . .	275-283
Linus . . . . .	67-79 ?	Caius . . . . .	283-296
Anencletus . . . . .	79-90 ?	Marcellinus . . . . .	296-304
Clement I . . . . .	90-99 ?	Marcellus . . . . .	308-309
Evaristus . . . . .	99-107 ?	Eusebius . . . . .	309-(310)
Alexander . . . . .	107-116 ?	Miltiades . . . . .	311-314
Xystus (Sixtus) . . . . .	116-125 ?	Sylvester I . . . . .	314-335
Telesphorus . . . . .	125-136 ?	Marcus . . . . .	336
Hyginus . . . . .	136-140 ?	Julius I . . . . .	337-352
Pius I . . . . .	140-154 ?	Liberius . . . . .	352-366
Anicetus . . . . .	154-165	Damasus I . . . . .	366-384
Soter . . . . .	165-174	Siricius . . . . .	384-399
Eleutherus . . . . .	174-189	Anastasius I . . . . .	399-401
Victor . . . . .	189-198	Innocent I . . . . .	401-417
Zephyrinus . . . . .	198-217	Zosimus . . . . .	417-418
Callistus . . . . .	217-222	Boniface I . . . . .	418-422
Urbanus . . . . .	222-230	Celestine I . . . . .	422-432
Pontianus . . . . .	230-235	Xystus III . . . . .	432-440
Anterus . . . . .	235-236	Leo I . . . . .	440-461
Fabianus . . . . .	236-250	Hilarus . . . . .	461-468
Cornelius . . . . .	251-253	Simplicius . . . . .	468-483
Lucius I . . . . .	253-254	Felix II . . . . .	483-492
Stephen I . . . . .	254-257	Gelasius I . . . . .	492-496
Xystus II . . . . .	257-258	Anastasius II . . . . .	496-498
Dionysius . . . . .	259-268	Symmachus . . . . .	498-514
Felix I . . . . .	269-274	Hormisdas . . . . .	514-523

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	A. D.		A. D.
John I . . . . .	523-526	Marinus I . . . . .	882-884
Felix III . . . . .	526-530	Adrian III . . . . .	884-885
Boniface II . . . . .	530-532	Stephen V . . . . .	885-891
John II . . . . .	533-535	Formosus . . . . .	891-896
Agapetus I . . . . .	535-536	Boniface VI . . . . .	896
Silverius . . . . .	536-537	Stephen VI . . . . .	896-897
Vigilius . . . . .	537-555	Romanus . . . . .	897
Pelagius I . . . . .	556-561	Theodore II . . . . .	897
John III . . . . .	561-574	John IX . . . . .	898-900
Benedict I . . . . .	575-579	Benedict IV . . . . .	900-903
Pelagius II . . . . .	579-590	Leo V . . . . .	903
Gregory I . . . . .	590-604	Christopher . . . . .	903-904
Sabinianus . . . . .	604-606	Sergius III . . . . .	904-911
Boniface III . . . . .	607	Anastasius III . . . . .	911-913
Boniface IV . . . . .	608-615	Lando . . . . .	913-914
Deusdedit . . . . .	615-618	John X . . . . .	914-928
Boniface V . . . . .	619-625	Leo VI . . . . .	928
Honorius I . . . . .	625-638	Stephen VII . . . . .	928-931
Severinus . . . . .	640	John XI . . . . .	931-935
John IV . . . . .	640-642	Leo VII . . . . .	936-939
Theodore I . . . . .	642-649	Stephen VIII . . . . .	939-942
Martin I . . . . .	649-653	Marinus II . . . . .	942-946
Eugenius I . . . . .	654-657	Agapetus II . . . . .	946-955
Vitalian . . . . .	657-672	John XII . . . . .	955-964
Adeodatus . . . . .	672-676	Leo VIII . . . . .	963-965
Donus . . . . .	676-678	Benedict V . . . . .	964
Agatho . . . . .	678-681	John XIII . . . . .	965-972
Leo II . . . . .	682-683	Benedict VI . . . . .	973-974
Benedict II . . . . .	684-685	Benedict VII . . . . .	974-983
John V . . . . .	685-686	John XIV . . . . .	983-984
Conon . . . . .	686-687	Boniface VII . . . . .	984-985
Sergius . . . . .	687-701	John XV . . . . .	985-996
John VI . . . . .	701-705	Gregory V . . . . .	996-999
John VII . . . . .	705-707	Sylvester II . . . . .	999-1003
Sisinnius . . . . .	708	John XVII . . . . .	1003
Constantine . . . . .	708-715	John XVIII . . . . .	1003-09
Gregory II . . . . .	715-731	Sergius IV . . . . .	1009-12
Gregory III . . . . .	731-741	Benedict VIII . . . . .	1012-24
Zacharias . . . . .	741-752	John XIX . . . . .	1024-32
Stephen II . . . . .	752-757	Benedict IX . . . . .	1032-44
Paul I . . . . .	757-767	Gregory VI . . . . .	1045-46
Stephen III . . . . .	768-772	Clement II . . . . .	1046-47
Adrian I . . . . .	772-795	Damasus II . . . . .	1048
Leo III . . . . .	795-816	Leo IX . . . . .	1049-54
Stephen IV . . . . .	816-817	Victor II . . . . .	1055-57
Paschal I . . . . .	817-824	Stephen IX . . . . .	1057-58
Eugenius II . . . . .	824-827	Benedict X . . . . .	1058-59
Valentine . . . . .	827	Nicholas II . . . . .	1058-61
Gregory IV . . . . .	827-844	Alexander II . . . . .	1061-73
Sergius II . . . . .	844-847	Gregory VII . . . . .	1073-85
Leo IV . . . . .	847-855	Victor III . . . . .	1087
Benedict III . . . . .	855-858	Urban II . . . . .	1088-99
Nicholas I . . . . .	858-867	Paschal II . . . . .	1099-1118
Adrian II . . . . .	867-872	Gelasius II . . . . .	1118-19
John VIII . . . . .	872-882	Calixtus II . . . . .	1119-24

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	A. D.		A. D.
Honorius II . . . . .	1124-30	Pius II . . . . .	1458-64
Innocent II . . . . .	1130-43	Paul II . . . . .	1464-71
Celestine II . . . . .	1143-44	Sixtus IV . . . . .	1471-84
Lucius II . . . . .	1144-45	Innocent VIII . . . . .	1484-92
Eugenius III . . . . .	1145-53	Alexander VI . . . . .	1492-1503
Anastasius IV . . . . .	1153-54	Pius III . . . . .	1503
Adrian IV . . . . .	1154-59	Julius II . . . . .	1503-13
Alexander III . . . . .	1159-81	Leo X . . . . .	1513-21
Lucius III . . . . .	1181-85	Adrian VI . . . . .	1522-23
Urban III . . . . .	1185-87	Clement VII . . . . .	1523-34
Gregory VIII . . . . .	1187	Paul III . . . . .	1534-49
Clement III . . . . .	1187-91	Julius III . . . . .	1550-55
Celestine III . . . . .	1191-98	Marcellus II . . . . .	1555
Innocent III . . . . .	1198-1216	Paul IV . . . . .	1555-59
Honorius III . . . . .	1216-27	Pius IV . . . . .	1559-65
Gregory IX . . . . .	1227-41	Pius V . . . . .	1566-72
Celestine IV . . . . .	1241	Gregory XIII . . . . .	1572-85
Innocent IV . . . . .	1243-54	Sixtus V . . . . .	1585-90
Alexander IV . . . . .	1254-61	Urban VII . . . . .	1590
Urban IV . . . . .	1261-64	Gregory XIV . . . . .	1590-91
Clement IV . . . . .	1265-68	Innocent IX . . . . .	1591
Gregory X . . . . .	1271-76	Clement VIII . . . . .	1592-1605
Innocent V . . . . .	1276	Leo XI . . . . .	1605
Adrian V . . . . .	1276	Paul V . . . . .	1605-21
John XXI . . . . .	1276-77	Gregory XV . . . . .	1621-23
Nicholas III . . . . .	1277-80	Urban VIII . . . . .	1623-44
Martin IV . . . . .	1281-85	Innocent X . . . . .	1644-55
Honorius IV . . . . .	1285-87	Alexander VII . . . . .	1655-67
Nicholas IV . . . . .	1288-92	Clement IX . . . . .	1667-69
Celestine V . . . . .	1294	Clement X . . . . .	1670-76
Boniface VIII . . . . .	1294-1303	Innocent XI . . . . .	1676-89
Benedict XI . . . . .	1303-04	Alexander VIII . . . . .	1689-91
Clement V . . . . .	1305-14	Innocent XII . . . . .	1691-1700
John XXII . . . . .	1316-34	Clement XI . . . . .	1700-21
Benedict XII . . . . .	1334-42	Innocent XIII . . . . .	1721-24
Clement VI . . . . .	1342-52	Benedict XIII . . . . .	1724-30
Innocent VI . . . . .	1352-62	Clement XII . . . . .	1730-40
Urban V . . . . .	1362-70	Benedict XIV . . . . .	1740-58
Gregory XI . . . . .	1370-78	Clement XIII . . . . .	1758-69
Urban VI . . . . .	1378-89	Clement XIV . . . . .	1769-74
Boniface IX . . . . .	1389-1404	Pius VI . . . . .	1775-99
Innocent VII . . . . .	1404-06	Pius VII . . . . .	1800-23
Gregory XII . . . . .	1406-09	Leo XII . . . . .	1823-29
Alexander V . . . . .	1409-10	Pius VIII . . . . .	1829-30
John XXIII . . . . .	1410-15	Gregory XVI . . . . .	1831-46
Martin V . . . . .	1417-31	Pius IX . . . . .	1846-78
Eugenius IV . . . . .	1431-47	Leo XIII . . . . .	1878-1903
Nicholas V . . . . .	1447-55	Pius X . . . . .	1903-
Calixtus III . . . . .	1455-58		

## Chronology

*Byzantine Empire*

A. D.		A. D.	
306-337	Constantine I the Great. Capital, Constantinople.	716-740	Leo III the Isaurian. Constantinople besieged.
337-361	Constantius II.	740-775	Constantine V Capronymus. Iconoclasts.
361-363	Julian.	775-780	Leo IV <i>vs.</i> Bulgarians.
363-364	Jovian.	780-802	Constantine VI. Irene Regent and Usurper.
364-378	Valens.	802-811	Nicephorus I. Treaties. 811 Stauricius.
378-395	Theodosius the Great.	811-813	Michael I Rhangabe.
395-408	Arcadius <i>vs.</i> Visigoths and Huns. Empire divided 395.	813-820	Leo V the Armenian.
408-450	Theodosius II <i>vs.</i> Alaric, Attila, Genserik, Persia.	820-829	Michael II the Armorian.
450-457	Marcian.	829-842	Theophilus.
457-474	Leo I.	842-867	Michael III <i>vs.</i> Arabs and Russians.
474-491	Zeno. End of Western Empire.	867-886	Basil I the Macedonian.
491-518	Anastasius I. Isaurian War. Bulgarian invasion.	886-911	Leo VI the Wise <i>vs.</i> Russians.
518-528	Justin I.	911-959	Five emperors at once. Civil war. War <i>vs.</i> Russia and Moslems.
528-565	Justinian I the Great. St. Sophia. Code. Barbarians.	958-963	Romanus II. Conquest of Crete.
565-578	Justin II. Lombard invasion. Mohammed born.	963-969	Co-emperors — Nicephorus II. Phocas. Antioch taken. Wars.
578-582	Tiberius II <i>vs.</i> Persians.	969-976	— John I Tzimiscus. Wars.
582-602	Maurice <i>vs.</i> Avars and Persians.	976-1025	— Basil II. Era of power.
602-610	Phocas <i>vs.</i> Avars. Persians, Africa.	1025-1028	Constantine IX <i>vs.</i> Mohammedans.
610-641	Heraclius <i>vs.</i> Persians. Loss of Damascus, Antioch, Jerusalem.	1028-1034	Romanus III Argyrus <i>vs.</i> Mohammedans.
641-642	Heraclius, Constantius, and Heracleonas. Most of Asia Minor lost.	1034-1042	Michael IV the Paphlagonian. Norman conquest of Sicily.
642-668	Constans II. All Africa lost to Rome.	1042	Michael V. Schism between Greek and Roman churches.
668-685	Constantine IV. Mohammedans in Sicily. Bulgaria.	1042	Zoe and Theodora.
685-695	Justinian II <i>vs.</i> Bulgarians, Slavs, Mohammedans.	1042-1054	Constantine X Monomachus.
695-697	Leontius.	1054-1056	Theodora (restored).
697-705	Tiberius III Apsimarpus.	1056-1057	Michael VI Stratoniscus. Invasion of Hungarians.
705-711	Justinian II restored.	1057-1059	Isaac I Comnenus.
711-713	Philippicus.	1059-1067	Constantine XI Ducas.
713-715	Anastasius.		
715-716	Theodosius III.		

A. D.		A. D.	
1067-1078	Michael VII Ducas.	1183-1185	Andronicus I Comnenus.
1067-1078	Co-emperor — Romanus IV. Diogenes XIV.	1185-1195	Isaac II Angelus loses Wallachia and Cyprus.
1078-1081	Nicephorus III Botomates. Sack of Constantinople.	1195-1203	Alexius III purchases peace from Turks.
1081-1118	Alexius I Comnenus. Crusaders at Constantinople.	1203-1204	Isaac II (restored). Alexius IV Angelus.
1118-1143	John II Comnenus.	1204	Alexius V Ducas Murtzuphlus. End of Byzantine Empire.
1143-1180	Manuel I Comnenus.		
1180-1183	Alexius II Comnenus.		

*Latin Empire. 1204-1261.*

1204-1205	Baldwin I.	1219-1228	Robert.
1205-1216	Henry.	1228-1237	John of Brienne.
1217-1219	Peter.	1237-1261	Baldwin II.

*Nicaean Empire. 1204-1261.*

1204-1222	Theodore I Lascaris.	1259-1260	John IV Ducas.
1222-1254	John III Ducas.	1261	Michael VIII Paleologus.
1254-1259	Theodore II Ducas.		

*Byzantine Empire Restored. 1261-1453.*

1261-1282	Michael VIII Paleologus.	1376-1379	Co-emperor — Andronicus IV Paleologus, (usurped throne).
1282-1328	Andronicus II Paleologus.	1391-1425	Manuel II Paleologus.
1295-1320	Co-emperor — Michael IX.	1425-1448	John VII Paleologus.
1328-1341	Andronicus III Paleologus.	1448-1453	Constantine XIII Paleologus. Fall of Constantinople.
1341-1391	John VI Paleologus.		
1342-1355	Co-emperor — John V Cantacuzene.		

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## VIII

### HISTORY OF FRANCE

FRANCE appears very early in European history, although under a different name, and soon assumes the prominent part which it has played ever since. That this region was inhabited in prehistoric times is amply demonstrated by remains of various kinds which can now be seen in the principal museums. Besides relics of the rude stone age, archæologists have also found within its boundaries some of the most remarkable Druidic monuments, which antedate all other human constructions in that region. These Druidic remains, which are particularly numerous in Brittany and Auvergne, consist of rude altar stones (dolmens), rough-hewn obelisks (menhirs), circles of stones (cromlechs), covered alleys, rocking stones, and last, but by no means least, we must mention the famous monument at Carnac, where there still remain sixteen hundred stones set upright in parallel rows, although many others have been removed to furnish building materials for houses in the neighbourhood.

Owing to its climate, which is particularly favourable to the growth of grain and the vine, and to its location and well-watered area, the land within the present boundaries of France has always seemed an inviting dwelling-place. Therefore it attracted hordes of barbarians, the first of whom came thither for the sake of the fat pastures, while later comers were principally enticed by the prospects of rich spoil.

Besides the Celts, whose traces are most prominent in Brittany, the Gauls, Visigoths, Burgundians, and Franks, all occupied the country in succession, while other barbarians, such as the Vandals, Huns, and Saracens, merely made raids into it, but secured no lasting foothold within



its borders. Aside from these barbaric inroads, France was also invaded, in a peaceful way and for commercial purposes, by the Greeks and Phœnicians ; and while it is said the former founded Marseilles, the latter are supposed to have taught the Celts and Gauls the art of extracting metals from the earth and of melting and forging them. It was, however, only shortly before our era that the Romans secured their first basis for operations in Southeastern France, and from thence spread not only all over the country, but far beyond its limits to the distant coast of the North Sea.

The French nation of to-day is a composite of these varied races, and the country still bears many traces of their occupancy. Aside from stone weapons, Druidical constructions, rude pottery, fragments of cloth and some ornaments, we have comparatively few remains of the Celts or Gauls. The Phœnician, and especially the early Roman traces are, however, far more numerous, because, when the Romans settled in the country, building roads, draining marshes, and constructing elaborate and massive aqueducts, baths, temples, circuses, palaces, etc., they introduced their civilization, which thrived in this favourable soil, until it equalled and even surpassed that of the Eternal City.

Wherever you go in France, you are sure to meet some trace of the long sojourn of the Romans, who also left their indelible imprint upon the French language. In fact, there are comparatively few genuine Celt or Gallic words, but the bulk of the French language is undoubtedly derived from the Latin. The legendary, historical, artistic, and literary interest of all these Roman remains is undisputed, and France can boast in the Maison Carrée at Nîmes, and in the arenas of Nîmes, Arles, and Béziers, far more perfectly preserved Roman buildings than can be found anywhere in Italy. Some of these Roman constructions are still so complete that French actors within the last few years have been able to reproduce faithfully in one of these buildings an old-time dramatic festival.

Roman supremacy in France lasted about four centuries and a half, during which time many famous cities were founded, roads and canals were constructed, and the receptive people not only assimilated all their conquerors could teach them, but, owing to their vivacious and versatile temperament, learned to outdistance their teachers in every branch of science and art. Thus Gaul beyond the Alps (*Gallia Transalpina*), which had once been synonymous with the land of the barbarians, came to boast of universities which rivalled the schools of Athens in their palmy days, and which were frequented by the pick of students from all lands; and France has never lost the mental ascendancy thus won in the beginning of our era, and still claims a foremost rank in all pertaining to literature, science, art, or progress.

With the withdrawal of the Roman military forces, and the consequent rise and spread of the Franks, — from whom it was to derive its name, — the land entered into a new phase of existence. The conquering race, of rough Teutonic strain, assumed the rule, while the Gauls and all the Gallo-Roman population, long unaccustomed to warfare and now addicted to the peaceful pursuits of commerce and learning, formed the great middle class, — the class which in all nations is the best, the characteristic, element of the people.

Thus, by the Frank invasion society was divided into several classes, the Franks or conquerors ranking first as the nobles, the Gauls necessarily falling back into the second class, — later termed *bourgeoisie*, — and the serfs and slaves becoming the ancestors of the peasant, or labouring, population.

The chiefs or kings of the early Frank or Merovingian dynasty rapidly degenerated, and after a little more than three hundred years' sway were supplanted by one of their own vassals, whose descendants were treated in a similar fashion about two hundred years later. Three dynasties, therefore, — the Merovingian, Carolingian, and Capetian, — with their long list of kings, ruled over France from the fifth to the nineteenth century, leaving



**The Castle, Heidelberg**

pp. 65, 153, 454



Panorama of Constantinople and Bosphorus

pp. 71, 321, 334

their indelible imprint upon the laws, customs, religion, art, and literature of the country.

In a measure as we are familiar with the outline and main features of the story of France, we are, therefore, ready to appreciate and enjoy what we see. Such knowledge also enables us to call up the famous scenes enacted in certain places, and to live as it were in the past. Rouen, for instance, gains many additional charms if we can picture vividly the scenes of Rollo's siege and those of Joan of Arc's imprisonment, trial, and death, — to mention only *two* out of the large number of historical events for which it is famous.

To visit a historical spot without any knowledge of its associations places you in the position of an unusually unlettered American, who, finding himself waiting in the antechamber of the Petit Trianon for the arrival of the custodian who was to show the travellers through the rooms, loudly inquired of an unfortunate countryman whom he discovered: "Say, what is there to see here, anyway? What is this *Trianon*, and who is this *Mary Antoinette* they are making such a fuss about?" When briefly informed that Marie Antoinette was a queen, and that she had once inhabited this palace, he snorted in disdain, because the Trianon, in his opinion, did not equal an ordinary Chicago house, let alone come up to his ideas of a palace! The visit to the Trianon, fraught with so much pathos and poetry for the initiated, was an unmitigated bore to him, and he certainly proved a sore trial to those obliged to view it in his company.

France, ever at war with the surrounding countries, has a long list of victories and conquests in her annals, — a list offset by some crushing defeats, from which, however, she has always risen with new courage and vigour. Thus the sombre pages of the declining years of the Merovingian and Carolingian dynasties offer a striking contrast to the glorious reigns of Clovis, Dagobert, and Charlemagne, with the romance of Roland, or the heroic exploits of Merovæus who defeated the Huns at Châlons, and of Charles the Hammer, who checked the advance

of the Saracens at Tours, or Poitiers, thus saving Western Europe from Mohammedan rule.

Clouds of superstitious apprehension and years of famine and plague darkened the beginning of the eleventh century — ushered in by the dreaded year 1000 — after which France decked herself with wonderful Gothic cathedrals, many of which, the direct outcome of the large gifts made to the church by those who feared the world was coming to an end, still exist as first planned and have never been equalled. The Age of Chivalry and Crusades is coexistent with the rise of the Communes, when new life and culture are introduced into France as well as many improvements in manners and morals. Returning crusaders, besides, brought back relics, for which shrines were erected, such as the Saint Chapelle which was built to receive the Crown of Thorns.

The age of the crusaders and of successful warfare in the East was followed by an era of defeat, when these conquests were lost, and when even the Knights Templar returned and settled in Paris, where, owing to their wealth and influence, they gave umbrage to the French king. It is almost at the same epoch, too, that the Popes, fleeing from Rome, found a refuge at Avignon, where the Papal Palace still stands to bear witness to a sojourn which, principally on account of its duration, has been likened to the Captivity of Babylon. But after about seventy years the Holy See was again established in Rome, from whence it has never since departed.

The Hundred Years' War with England ended fortunately for France, thanks to the patriotism and devotion of Joan of Arc, the great French heroine. This epoch was swiftly followed by Louis XI's crafty policy of extension, and by the romantic but ill-advised wars in Italy of Charles VIII, Louis XII, and Francis I, — wars which, however injurious to France otherwise, resulted in the Renaissance and a general desire to introduce Italian art and culture. Many painters, sculptors, and architects were therefore imported, castles and



Sainte Chapelle, Paris  
pp. 18, 84, 465



Castle of Uzès, France  
pp. 85, 97, 453



palaces rose on all sides, and museums and picture galleries were inestimably enriched by the statues, paintings, and other works of art then produced.

After the Valois period, so favourable to art and literature although so detrimental to morals (those of the court in particular), we come to the picturesque but distressing religious wars, which, taking their source in the early Albigensian and Waldensian (Vaudois) troubles, culminated in the bitter struggle between Catholics and Huguenots after Calvin had been exiled from France, — a struggle which was made forever memorable by the awful massacre of the St. Bartholomew, and which was checked only by Henry IV's abjuration and his subsequent publication of the Edict of Nantes.

The administration of such able ministers as Sully, Richelieu, and Mazarin, under Henry IV, Louis XIII, and during the minority of Louis XIV, enabled the latter monarch to play the brilliant part of "King Sun" to his heart's content, and supplied the funds for the construction of Versailles as well as for many wars. But "King Sun" lived long enough to revoke the Edict of Nantes and not only to banish the Huguenots, — the thriftiest class of his subjects, — but also to perceive the first signs of the gathering storm of the revolution ere he sank to his rest. He was succeeded by a great-grandson, whose early years were misguided by the clever but unprincipled Regent of Orleans and his licentious crew. Total lack of sensible education or proper training, with wilful perversion of all good principles and right instincts, resulted in a selfish, sensuous monarch, who, on seeing things go from bad to worse, carelessly shrugged his shoulders, comforting himself with the belief that the crash would not come until he had passed away, yet nevertheless cynically wondering how his grandson would solve the problem.

After Louis XV, the anticipated "deluge" did indeed break loose, overwhelming not only his weak though well-intentioned successor Louis XVI, but also the beautiful and unfortunate Marie Antoinette, her innocent son,

and thousands of aristocrats, and leaving France, after an indescribable orgy of bloodshed, bereft of many of her best and bravest citizens.

From all the confusion of the ghastly French Revolution — like the proverbial lily from the dunghill — rose “Liberty, Fraternity, and Equality” to the tune of the thrilling “Marseillaise.” Many abuses were suppressed, sundry old grievances were set aside forever, and a new era of progress began, only to be checked in a measure by Napoleon’s insatiable ambitions, which plunged France into a new series of wars. The First Republic, after eleven years’ existence, was replaced by the First Empire, so famous in history for Napoleon’s victories and final defeat, as well as for the way in which, for a brief space of time, he juggled with the crowns of Europe.

Napoleon’s romantic career, the return of the Bourbons who had “learned nothing and forgotten nothing,” and whose ill-advised attempt to restore the old régime only resulted in their own overthrow, was succeeded by the Constitutional Government of Louis Philippe, during which Napoleon’s remains were brought back to France, and Algeria was added to French territory. But the accidental death of the Crown Prince, and the prospect of the long minority of Louis Philippe’s grandson under the regency of his detested uncles, again precipitated events, and a second revolution and the short-lived Second Republic of 1848 were, in their turn, speedily followed by the famous Coup d’État and the Second Empire under Napoleon III.

It was during this brilliant Second Empire that Paris assumed much of its present aspect, but, notwithstanding municipal and other improvements, and the glory won by French troops in the Crimea and Italy, as well as farther afield, Napoleon III’s reign culminated in the disastrous Franco-Prussian War and the surrender at Sedan.

The Third Republic was barely proclaimed when Paris was twice besieged, first by the Prussians, intent upon securing their revenge for the first Napoleon’s entrance

into Berlin, and then by French government troops trying to suppress the Commune, which wantonly set fire to the principal public buildings, some of which, such as the Tuileries and the Old Hôtel de Ville, were entirely destroyed, while others, such as the Galleries of the Louvre, were only with difficulty preserved from a similar fate.

Since then, despite sundry political agitations and plots on the part of the Bonapartist, Orleanist, and Legitimist factions, not to mention the various shades of republicans, — all anxious to recover their former ascendancy or to attain power for the first time, — France has been a republic, governed in turn by the seven presidents, Thiers, MacMahon, Grévy, Carnot, Casimir-Périer, Faure, and Loubet.

Since 1871 the ruins of the Franco-Prussian War have almost entirely disappeared. France has shown recuperative powers which have excited the amazement and admiration of the world, and the expositions of 1889 and 1900 have helped to attract vast numbers of students and artists as well as countless foreigners to Paris, the rallying-ground of pleasure-seekers from all parts of the world. But although all can find pleasure and profit within its precincts, Paris, the nucleus of France, is far too cosmopolitan to be reckoned as a characteristically French city. That distinction is reserved for smaller, more provincial centres, where real French life and character can be studied to far better advantage than in the polyglot, chameleon metropolis.

## Rulers of France

### *Merovingian Dynasty. 420-752.*

Twenty-two kings. Pharamond, first, mythical. 481-511 Clovis. 628-638 Dagobert. Last Do-Nothing supplanted by Mayor of Palace.

### *Carlovingian Dynasty. 752-987.*

Fourteen kings. 768-814 Charlemagne.

*Capetian Dynasty. Direct line 987-1328.*

987-996	Hugues Capet.	1223-1226	Louis VIII.
996-1031	Robert I.	1226-1270	Louis IX.
1031-1060	Henry I.	1270-1285	Philip III.
1060-1108	Philip I.	1285-1314	Philip IV.
1108-1137	Louis VI.	1314-1316	Louis X.
1137-1180	Louis VII.	1316-1322	Philip V.
1180-1223	Philip II Augustus.	1322-1328	Charles IV.

*Capetian Branch of Valois, direct. 1328-1498*

1328-1350	Philip VI.	1422-1461	Charles VII.
1350-1364	John II.	1461-1483	Louis XI.
1364-1380	Charles V.	1483-1498	Charles VIII.
1380-1422	Charles VI.		

*Capetian Branch of Valois-Orléans. 1498-1515.*

1498-1515 Louis XII.

*Capetian Branch of Valois-Angoulême. 1515-1589.*

1515-1547	Francis I.	1560-1574	Charles IX.
1547-1559	Henry II.	1574-1589	Henry III.
1559-1560	Francis II.		

*Capetian Branch of Bourbons. 1589-1792.*

1589-1610	Henry IV.	1774-1793	Louis XVI.
1610-1643	Louis XIII.	(1793-1795)	Louis XVII. Nomi-
1643-1715	Louis XIV.		nal reign.
1715-1774	Louis XV.	1789	First Revolution.

*First French Republic. 1792-1804.*

1795-1799	Directory.	1799-1804	Consulate.
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*First French Empire. 1804-1814.*

1804-1814	Napoleon I.		
(1814)	Napoleon II. Nominal reign.		

*First Restoration of Capetian Bourbons. 1814-1815.*

1814-1815 Louis XVIII.

*First French Empire Restored. 1815.*

March 20-July 8. The One Hundred Days.

*Second Restoration of Capetian Bourbons. 1815-1830.*

1815-1824	Louis XVIII.	1830	Second Revolution.
1824-1830	Charles X.		

*Constitutional Monarchy Bourbons-Orléans. 1830-1848.*

1830-1848 Louis Philippe.

1848 Third Revolution.

*Second French Republic. 1848-1852.*

1848-1852 Louis Napoleon, President.

1851 Fourth Revolution or Coup d'État.

*Second Empire. 1852-1870.*

1852-1870 Napoleon III.

1870 Fifth Revolution.

*Third French Republic. 1870-*

1871-1873 Thiers.

1894-1895 Casimir-Périer.

1873-1879 MacMahon.

1895-1899 Faure.

1879-1887 Grévy.

1899-1906 Loubet.

1887-1894 Carnot.

1906- Fallières.

**Elementary Reading**

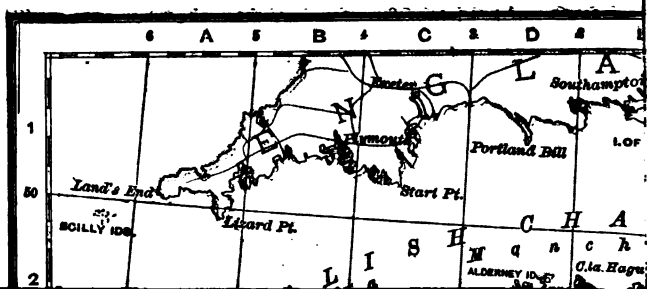
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## IX

### TRAVEL IN FRANCE.

TOURISTS who intend to visit France and keep entirely to beaten tracks will find English spoken in many hotels and in the principal stores, so it is quite possible to get along without any knowledge of French. Lacking it, however, one is often obliged to pay more, and misses much that would be thoroughly enjoyed if even a part of all one sees and hears were understood.

But should your itinerary include remote or unfrequented places, a certain amount of French is simply indispensable. The quickest and surest method to acquire this superficial knowledge is indicated in Chapter XXXVII, to which refer for information on that score.

Upon landing in France one immediately becomes aware that this is indeed a foreign country, and the difference between the English and the French strikes one with ever new force, no matter how often one passes from one country to the other. It is greatest, of course, in the country districts, and while there is no doubt that any amount of time can be spent in the capital with pleasure and profit, it is well to remember that Paris is not all France.

With a Baedeker, Cook, Murray, or Joanne Guide, and an *Indicateur des Chemins de Fer* (railway guide), the traveller is provided with all that is necessary to map out a journey. He (or she) can, besides, easily compute distances, by remembering that the kilometre is about five-eighths of an English mile, and as far as the weighing of luggage is concerned, one must bear in mind that the unit, a kilo (the abbreviation for kilogramme), is equivalent to two and one-fourth pounds avoirdupois. For everything over fifty-six pounds, you must pay at

the rate of so much per kilogramme for every mile you go ; thus the cost of luggage transportation may exceed that of your ticket, if you travel with too much impedimenta.

While planning your trip, always map out your itinerary — according to the point where you land, and the time at your disposal — so as to include some of the fine sights which the majority of strangers miss in their mad rush to Paris.

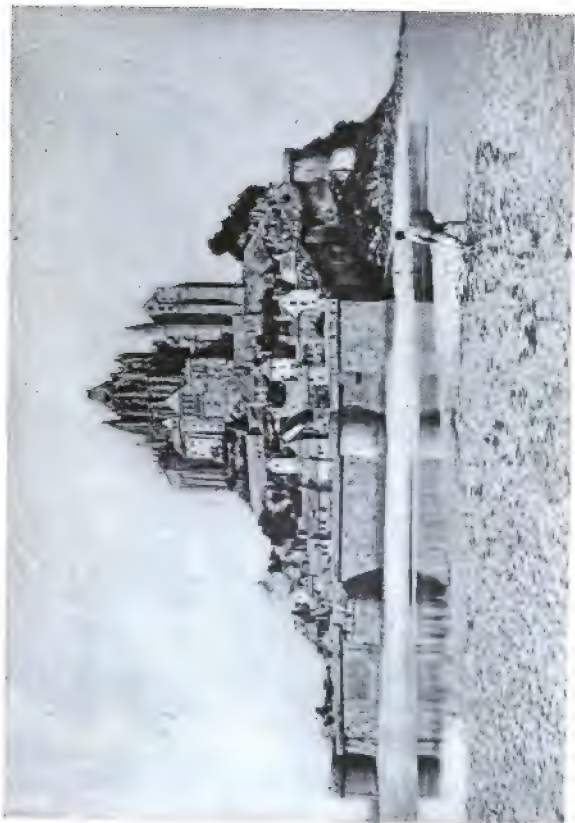
Coming from England, or landing directly in France from a transatlantic steamer, the traveller usually strikes either Calais, Boulogne, Dieppe, Le Havre, Cherbourg, Brest, or one of the other northwest cities. All these places are intensely interesting in themselves, but walks, drives, and excursions along the coast will give you an idea of the life of the fisher-folk and of that in bathing-resorts, as well as a peep at the cliffs, grottos, and tunnels of the shore. By going a short distance inland you will get, besides, glimpses of the picturesque farms and peasantry of Picardy, Normandy, or Brittany.

In landing at Calais, the tourist can easily take in, on his direct route to Paris, Amiens with its wonderful cathedral, said to be the finest Gothic building in the world. Should you enter France by Le Havre or Dieppe, include at least Rouen in your itinerary, being well rewarded for any time devoted to its wonderful architecture (such as the church of St. Ouen and the Hôtel Bourgthéroulde), or historical points of interest, especially those connected with the life of Joan of Arc.

Those who get their first glimpse of France at Cherbourg can stop off at Caen, the place where William the Conqueror built one of the finest churches of his time and also the home of Charlotte Corday ; at Bayeux, where Queen Mathilda's tapestry is one of the curiosities to be seen ; at Evreux, where a cathedral, not to mention other attractions, will claim some attention, and, deflecting slightly southward, you can pause at Dreux and visit the Royal Chapel where Louis Philippe and his family are buried.



Panorama from Church of St. Gervais, Paris  
p. 94



General View of Mount St. Michael, France

By embarking at Southampton for France, it is possible to sail directly to St. Malo, and thus visit Mt. St. Michel, of which Victor Hugo says: "Mt. St. Michel is to France what the Pyramids are to Egypt." Even if the legends, the picturesque site of the quaint town with its ponderous walls crowned by the airy pinnacles of a church, have no fascination, even if its historical past has no charm, and its Hall of Knights — the finest Gothic chamber in the world — leaves you quite cold, you may nevertheless enjoy the view over the quicksands from the high "promenoir," or "lace staircase," or, by choosing your time, behold the "mascaret" when the tide rises like a wall sixteen yards high, and rushes inland with the speed of an express train. This phenomenon, which can also be seen in England at the Shannon, is known there as the "bore," and is one of the many curious sights which can be enjoyed abroad. Still, the mascaret is said to be even more furious in its advance at Caudebec, on the Seine, or at the mouth of the Loire, if you are so fortunate as to visit those regions.

Countless artists find it advantageous to spend months at a time, sketching in Normandy or Brittany, where the costumes, seen in all their glory at the village fairs or Kirmesses, at the Pardons and Pilgrimages, and the quaint picturesque hamlets, with their cheap board, offer endless subjects for colour studies at moderate cost. In Brittany also you can visit the sardine fisheries of Quimper, the naval station at Brest, the Druidical remains at Carnac, the curious old churches and houses of Rennes, and just across its frontier, of Laval also, one of the quaintest places that ever delighted an artist's heart.

While you may thus linger on your way to Paris, your longest stop will doubtless be made there, and will seem all too short, no matter how prolonged. Only by studying the city plan in advance, and combining all your movements, can you make the most of your time and strength while there. Guide books indicate not

only all the points of interest, but the days and hours when churches, galleries, museums, etc., are open to the public, so no further information concerning those sights will be given here. Many strangers make the mistake of visiting in Paris the Morgue (of interest to specialists only), or places of amusement of a low or doubtful character, such as they would shun at home. Then they expatiate on "the wickedness of Paris," although wickedness is unfortunately not the monopoly of one city only, but can be found in every great centre by those who seek it.

Besides the historical and artistic points of interest, of which you have doubtless made note in your preparatory reading, you will find in ordinary Parisian life phases of simply fascinating interest. To behold it you must visit the shops, restaurants, dairies (crémèries), etc., frequented by the French themselves, in preference to those where the majority of customers are foreigners like yourself. Many people who go to Paris manage to see more of their own countrymen, or other visitors, than of the Parisians, and afterwards erroneously attribute to the latter some of the most objectionable traits of the passing tourist, who fancies everything permissible because, forsooth, "nobody knows him."

If possible, obtain introductions to native families and learn to know the French at home, for in spite of all that has been written to the contrary, there is no greater home-lover than the genuine Frenchman, who, however, is very chary about admitting strangers to his family circle.

Learn too, as well as you can, how the great middle class live, and by rising early behold such curious sights as the entrance into the city of long strings of provision wagons at early dawn, the gay flower-market, whose glory is over before the average citizen is out of bed, and the quaint scenes at the busy hours in the "halles," or central markets.

By obtaining a permit you can always secure the privilege of visiting the catacombs which honeycomb the soil under Paris, as well as the magnificent sewerage system,



Isabella of Aragon, Raphael, Louvre  
pp. 94, 414



**Battle of the Texel, Isabey, Versailles**

pp. 95, 410



of which the city is so justly proud. A little inquiry will also elicit considerable information concerning manifold free lecture courses, night schools where you can learn, free of charge, any branch you care to study, — from plain carpentering, or arithmetic, to painting and sculpture, — and there are besides countless other priceless opportunities for culture and improvement.

By frequenting the small family hotels, the cheaper restaurants, and the little shops patronised only by French people, — who, by the way, seldom enter the great emporiums where strangers flock, — it is possible to live both well and cheaply, and one can then draw much nearer to the natives, and learn really to know and appreciate them at their full worth. The average Frenchman has a serious practical vein, and is very different from the hop-skip-and-jump Johnny Crapaud of caricature.

It is becoming more and more customary to make excursions from Paris, extending even further than the usual trips to Versailles, St. Germain, Malmaison, Fontainebleau, Compiègne, Pierrefonds, Vincennes, Mainton, Rambouillet, Chantilly, etc.

If you explore Northern France, you will strike, besides the already mentioned towns of Boulogne, Calais, Dieppe, and Amiens, the fortified port of Dunkerque, the quaint town of St. Omer, and Arras, with its wonderful cathedral, of which a great authority says : " The choir of Beauvais, the nave of Amiens, the portal of Arras, and the towers of Chartres would together make the finest cathedral in the world."

At Douai the tourist finds a museum of rare national antiquities ; at Lille, Vauban's masterpiece of fortification and a collection of Dutch and Flemish paintings it is well not to miss. Still farther afield he will discover Valenciennes, noted for the lace which bears the town's name ; Ham, whence Napoleon III effected a romantic escape after four years' imprisonment, and many places noted for treaties and battles.

Other travellers extend their wanderings to the Vosges mountains, in the northeast, and visit the battlefields of

the late Franco-Prussian War, including Sedan, Verdun, Nancy, on their way to the towns which used to be, but are no longer, French, such as Strasburg with its cathedral, and Mulhouse with its thriving manufactories.

Peasant life in Alsace and Lorraine has also its own peculiar features, and in the latter province we are frequently reminded of the all-powerful dukes of Burgundy, as well as of Joan of Arc.

Trips are made, either by train, coach, automobile, or cycle, through Champagne, the wine country, taking in Rheims, where the French kings were crowned, Soissons, already famous in Roman times, old-time Laon, and Beauvais with its beautiful cathedral, as well as the country around and between them.

In Champagne the culture of the vine, the vintaging, with its attendant characteristic features, the bottling and stacking of the wine, and the storing-houses where it is kept to ripen, afford matters of considerable interest.

In touring southeast from Paris the traveller strikes the cities of Troyes and Sens, remarkable for historical associations as well as for quaint and interesting houses, churches, and public buildings. Then come the picturesque Côte d'Or; Dijon, capital and place of sepulchre of the powerful dukes of Burgundy; the fertile banks of the Saône; the forest region of Morvan, and the foothills rising gradually to the Jura, nestling in whose valleys and beside whose rushing streams are countless factories, the chief industry of several centres being the manufacture of watches, music-boxes, and toys.

At Lyons, the junction of the Rhône and Saône, we are reminded of the Roman occupation, of the Waldenses, of the Revolution, and of many other interesting things, and can study the great centre of silk-weaving in France. Many of the silk-factories can even be visited, if the necessary permits are duly obtained, and the ingenuity displayed in machinery and handiwork is a true revelation to those not already familiar with similar sights. In Mulhouse, for instance, I remember with particular interest a too brief visit to a manufactory of spool cotton,



Storks, Strasburg  
pp. 96, 153



Great Clock Towers, Bordeaux  
p. 97

and another to a place where French calicoes, muslins, lawns, and cambrics passed beneath bright copper rollers in plain white to emerge in dainty-coloured patterns, and, after drying by rapid process, were neatly folded into pieces such as we see stacked up in our dry-goods stores.

From Paris it is now "quite the thing" also to take a trip into the Loire country,—a trip including the cathedral of Chartres and the picturesque châteaux or ruins of Angers, Chambord (with its double "trick" staircase), Azay le Rideau, Chaumont, Chinon, Loches, Chenonceau, Ussé, as well as the cities of Blois, Tours, Orleans, Bourges, Nevers, and Auxerre. Here, again, historical associations abound, the artistic sense is gratified, and one's love of nature in its peaceful moods is fully satisfied.

If it is possible to extend the journey farther southward, the great cathedrals of the southern towns (Poitiers, Bordeaux, Angoulême), the porcelain manufactures of Limoges, the shipping and wine trade of Bordeaux, the historical associations of La Rochelle, the picturesque yet barren salt marshes, the Landes with their "stilted" shepherds, and the cork forests, all beguile one farther and farther toward the Pyrenees. Along the coast, too, we find Biarritz, a bathing-resort still frequented, but not so fashionable as in the heyday of the Second Empire, when the beautiful Empress Eugénie rode horseback along the sands, and the little Prince Imperial joined the other children in catching shrimps, one of the great seashore amusements along the coast of France.

An excursion into Languedoc, with all its entrancing souvenirs, can include, besides, the interesting cities of Albi, Béziers, Toulouse, Carcassonne,—places which occur time and again in our historical reading, and many of which have been preserved almost unchanged since mediæval times. Then, by pushing down to the Pyrenees region, one can visit the mineral springs, and the miracle shrine of Lourdes, as well as Pau with its memories of the childhood of King Henry IV and of the sojourn

and writings of Marguerite de Valois. Excursions on foot or on horseback into the Pyrenees are delightful, and the passes of the Val d'Andorre and the Valley of Roncevaux, the romantic circus, peak, and waterfall of Gavarnie, the views, pine forests, and mountain air are all experiences to be enjoyed.

In Eastern and Southern France we find Auvergne, with its volcanic mountains, its hardy charcoal-burners, and Druidic remains; the Cévennes, with their thriving iron and coal mines, and picturesque shrines such as that of Le Puy. Then, by merely crossing the Rhône, one can visit Savoy with Mt. Blanc and the Alps, the first glimpse of whose eternal snows can already be obtained from Lyons. Amid mountaineers and shepherds one gets a glimpse of the typical little organ-grinder at home, and there too one can learn to know a frugal race at its best. Escaping from the southwestern end of Lake Geneva, the Rhône traverses this section on its way to join the Saône at Lyons, and at one place (Perte du Rhône) suddenly disappears underground only to emerge farther on with new force.

All this section is delightful in the extreme, as is also the Dauphiné, through which one can pass on one's way to Marseilles, Nice, and the French Riviera, with its famous invalid resorts of Cannes and Hyères and the much talked of gambling attractions of Monte Carlo in the principality of Monaco.

A leisurely sail down the Rhône, from Lyons to its mouth, will reveal many phases of French life and history, and the tourist will be glad to pause as frequently as possible, and will long to include all the side excursions that his time and strength will permit. One of the pauses sure to reward him is at Avignon, the former residence of the Popes, where the main part of the Papal Palace is now utilised as barracks. He will also behold the Roman remains at Arles, Nîmes, and Aix, as well as those of the Pont du Gard, all of which are sure to please antiquarians as well as lovers of history and of the picturesque. It is also in this section of the country



Observatory of the Queen and St. Nicholas, Blois



Chamounix, Route du Jardin and Grandes Jorasses  
pp. 98, 187



that he can best study the breeding of the silkworm, see mulberry trees stripped of all their foliage to feed the voracious little things, and behold whole fields devoted to the growth of sweet-smelling flowers, either destined for sale in Paris shops, or from which fine perfumes are distilled for the innumerable essences of which only French perfumers know the names.

The rivers of France, so picturesque in themselves and offering such a variety of scenes on their way from the mountains to the sea, are besides connected by a wonderful system of canals and locks, so that it is possible to pass from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mediterranean and to go from one river to another without any difficulty. In fact, these streams are connected also by canal with those of Belgium, Holland, Germany, and Austria, so that water-lovers can circulate everywhere in Central Europe by boat if they choose to do so.

Although only a few of the many attractions of "fair France" have been indicated in these pages, enough has surely been said to demonstrate that there are many things worthy of interest in the country, besides the shops and concert halls of Paris, the only points of interest to a certain class of ignorant tourists.

### French, Swiss, and Belgian Money Table

	Approximate values.	Abbreviations.	Metal.
One centime . . . . .	= $\frac{1}{5}$ ct.	1 c.	no coin.
One sou or five centimes . . . . .	= 1 ct.	5 c.	copper.
Two sous or ten centimes . . . . .	= 2 cts.	10 c.	copper.
Twenty-five centimes or five sous . . . . .	= 5 cts.	25 c.	nickel.
Fifty centimes, ten sous . . . . .	= 10 cts.	50 c.	silver.
One franc (one hundred centimes) . . . . .	= 20 cts.	1 f.	silver.
Two francs . . . . .	= 40 cts.	2 f.	silver.
Five francs, a hundred sous . . . . .	= \$1.00	5 f.	silver.
Ten francs . . . . .	= \$2.00	10 f.	gold.
Twenty francs, a Louis, or Napoleon, or écu . . . . .	= \$4.00	20 f.	gold.

Legal value of one franc = 19.3 cents.

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Monaco and Monte Carlo  
p. 98



France; **Lébon**, France as it is; **Lee**, In the Alsatian Mountains; The Humour of France; **Lentheric**, The Riviera Ancient and Modern; **Longfellow**, Poems of Places; **Ludbury**, Two Gentlemen in Touraine; **Lynch**, French Life in Town and Country; **Macmillan**, Western Mediterranean; The Riviera; **Macquoid**, Through Brittany; In the Ardennes; Pictures and Legends from Normandy; Through Normandy; **Marcet**, Southern France and Swiss Health Resorts; The Maritime Alps and their Sea Board; **Marshall**, French Home Life; **Martin**, The Stones of Paris in History and Letters; **Massé**, The City of Chartres; **Miln**, Excavations at Carnac; **Miltoun**, The Cathedrals of Northern France; The Cathedrals of Southern France; **Murray**, Handbook for France; Mediterranean Handbook; Handbook to Dauphiné; Sketches on the Old Road from France to Florence; Handbook to the Riviera; **Mylne**, Cathedral Church of Bayeux; **Pennell**, Play in Provence; Normandy; **Perkins**, French Cathedrals and Châteaux; The Churches of Rouen; **Roberts**, France; **Scott**, Rock Villages of the Riviera; **Singleton**, Paris; Romantic Castles and Palaces; French Furniture; **Sladen**, Brittany for Britons; **Smith**, The Church in France; Parisians Out of Doors; The Real Latin Quarter; Barbizon Days; The Forest of Fontainebleau; **Steevens**, Glimpses of Three Nations; **Stevenson**, Travels with a Donkey in the Cévennes; **Stoddard**, Lectures: Paris; Belle France; **Stokes**, Three Months in the Forests of France; **Taine**, Journeys through France; **Tozier**, Among French Inns; **Uzanne**, Fashion in Paris; **Vandam**, French Men and Manners; **Viator**, Flying South: Recollections of France; **Vincent**, In the Shadow of the Pyrenees; **Whiting**, Living in Paris and France; **Wilson**, Cathedrals of France; **Winkles**, French Cathedrals; **Wolf**, The Country of the Vosges; **Wood**, In the Valley of the Rhône.

## X

### HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

BEFORE the seas had worn a channel in the limestone rock, and while the British Isles were still part of the continent, they were occupied by a mysterious race of people whose stone weapons, monuments, and bones bear ample witness to their presence.

These primitive inhabitants were followed by a Celtic race, which introduced the Druidical religion on the islands, a religion practised there until after our era began. It was sometime during this period, also, that the Phœnicians first visited the islands in quest of tin and introduced there the art of mining.

About half a century before our era Cæsar landed for the first time in Albion (the White Land), and less than a hundred years later the country ranked as the Roman province of Britain. It remained under Roman rule until the fifth century began, and it was during that time that Roman legions did all the necessary fighting, while the Britons tilled the soil, and under their conquerors' directions built the famous Roman roads and the great walls across the island.

The Romans, having suppressed all revolts (such as that of Boadicea), introduced their own religion, laws, customs, and civilization, so that the country was soon dotted with fortified camps and castles, while temples, aqueducts, circuses, and baths were numerous, as their remains still testify.

How soon Christianity made its first appearance in Britain is a disputed matter, but it was certainly during Roman occupancy. Early in the fifth century, when Gothic invasions recalled the legions from distant points

to guard frontiers nearer home, the Britons, effeminated by three or more centuries of peace, during which they had devoted themselves exclusively to agriculture and commerce, proved utterly unfitted to cope with the renewed incursions of the Picts and Scots, their old foes.

Despairing of help from Rome, they finally summoned the Angles and Saxons from the banks of the North Sea to come and act as their bulwark. These Teutonic tribes came gladly, for fighting was as the breath of life to them, yet, when their services were no longer needed, they not only failed to depart, but summoned their friends and relatives to come over and join them.

The land first ceded to the Anglo-Saxons proved all too restricted to accommodate the hosts of people which spread farther and farther, driving the poor Britons northward and westward, and occupying at last nearly all that part of the country where Roman civilization had once thriven. Destructive, like most barbarians, the new-comers swept away many traces of luxury and refinement, ere they themselves became sufficiently cultured to appreciate or imitate what they saw.

The invaders not only introduced their own language, laws, literature, and religion, but effaced all traces of Christianity, which had not yet had time to gain a lasting hold upon the country. But while Christianity was temporarily suppressed in England, it thrived apace in Ireland (Hibernia), where, shortly after the Romans left England, St. Patrick began his missionary labours. Here he not only converted the inhabitants, but founded the schools and monasteries, from whence missionaries were to start to convert Scotland (Caledonia), the Netherlands, Germany, and Switzerland.

The Britons, having been driven to Wales and Cornwall, and even across seas to Brittany, carried there their language and legends, the most famous of the latter being that of King Arthur, which must have been based upon fact in some measure, although it is now so overlaid with fiction that the kernel of truth can no longer be discovered.

The Angles and Saxons formed seven kingdoms (the Heptarchy), whose chiefs or kings were often at odds, and it was only in 597 that Augustine landed in Thanet, to begin the work of converting the Anglo-Saxons, and built the first church on the site of Canterbury Cathedral.

Less than one hundred years after Augustine's arrival, the old heathen worship had vanished and Christianity reigned everywhere, — a Christianity of a rude and primitive order, like the people who practised it.

The greatest of all the Anglo-Saxon monarchs was Alfred, whose learning, laws, and successful struggle with new invaders made his name immortal. But, in spite of all his efforts, he could not drive the Danes (a branch of the dreaded Northmen) entirely out of the country, and was obliged to divide it with them. After his death the exactions of the Danes so enraged his people that St. Brice's Day was celebrated with great bloodshed, only to be more than avenged by Canute's conquest.

About forty years of Danish supremacy ensued, then the Saxon, Edward the Confessor, was crowned and buried in Westminster Abbey. The tragic death of his successor Harold at Hastings, the Norman Conquest, the Domesday Book, and distribution of land among Norman adventurers turned Anglo-Saxon England into a Norman province.

But here the force of kindred blood soon made itself felt, for the Normans were only another branch of the northern race to which Angles, Saxons, and Danes belonged as well. The introduction of Norman language, laws, literature, architecture, and refinement was, therefore, not difficult, and soon remodelled the country, which from now on gradually assumes a more and more familiar aspect.

With the coming of William the Conqueror, London — once a Roman stronghold — received a charter, and saw the Tower arise on the banks of the Thames. But the direct succession of Norman rulers was broken by



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the wreck of the White Ship, and the Plantagenet branch began with Henry II, of whose quarrel with Thomas à Becket every one has heard. The sons of this monarch are famous for different reasons, — Richard the Lion-Hearted for prowesses during the Second Crusade, and romantic adventures with Blondel and Robin Hood, and John Lackland for the Magna Charta, the cornerstone of English liberty.

More than half a century of rule by John's weak successor only strengthened the people, who in 1265 obtained a Parliament, where commoners were represented as well as the nobility and clergy. Next came Edward I, who conquered Wales and Scotland, and placed the famous Stone of Scone in Westminster Abbey, where it has remained ever since.

Although Scotland had been conquered, her people, jealous of their independence, rebelled under Wallace and Bruce, and won undying glory at Bannockburn. But Edward III completed the subjection of Scotland, in spite of the heroism of the Scots, ere he turned his attention to the Netherlands and France, to which he laid claim, in spite of the Salic Law. This claim is the real cause of the famous Hundred Years' War, ushered in by the disastrous battle of Crécy, which was followed by the siege of Calais. Ten years after Crécy, when the Black Plague had come and gone, Poitiers inflicted new defeat and loss upon the French, and made the English feel that they would soon be masters of all France.

Meantime the increased taxes due to the war were proving burdensome in England, where Wat Tyler's rebellion — the first open protest — taught the people their power. It was at this epoch also that Wyclif's teaching first began to free people from the tyranny of the church, which had grown as burdensome as that of the king. Still, the Hundred Years' War did much to foster patriotism, for from that time on the English ceased to copy the French in language, literature, or customs.

Richard II, the last direct Plantagenet, was succeeded by the first Lancastrian monarch, whose son, bluff King

Hal, wooed and married a French princess, obtaining with her hand the promise of the French crown at the death of Charles VI. It came to pass, however, that the insane French monarch outlived his English son-in-law, whose infant heir saw the French conquests all recovered by Joan of Arc.

In fact, when the Hundred Years' War came to an end, England had lost all her recent acquirements and former holdings in France, where she retained nothing save Calais. The weak successor of Henry V also saw the Cade rebellion, and his final deposition by Parliament proved the signal for the War of the Roses, which was to trouble England during about thirty years.

This was the epoch of Warwick, the great "king-maker" and the "last of the barons," for feudalism ended in England with the ultimate triumph of the white rose of York. Still, this triumph was fleeting, for Edward had no sooner passed away than his little sons were smothered in the Tower by their cruel uncle, who usurped the throne only to lose his crown on Bosworth Field.

The diadem thus dropped was seized and proudly worn by Henry VII, — first of the Tudors, — who, having suppressed all pretenders, established the Star Chamber, despatched the Cabots on their voyages of discovery, and arranged a marriage between his son and heir and Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. But this princess, having lost her husband soon after the marriage was concluded, was promptly given to a younger prince, because the King of England was not inclined to refund her marriage portion.

Henry VII, who is now remembered principally on account of the exquisite chapel in Westminster Abbey which bears his name, was succeeded by Henry VIII, whose display at the Field of the Cloth of Gold, rivalry with Francis I and Charles V, quarrels with Wolsey, etc., marriages, and divorces are the theme of many historians.

The printing-press, established by Caxton during Edward IV's reign, was now turning out many volumes,

which, coming into general circulation, gave a new impetus to learning and inquiry and thus hastened the Reformation.

Henry VIII, who obtained the title of "Defender of the Faith" for his pamphlet against Reform; was only too ready to turn coat, and was the first king who insisted that he was supreme head of the Church of England. Not only did he behead or imprison those who denied his supremacy, but he also suppressed countless monasteries, nunneries, and priories, whose wealth flowed into the royal coffers, which were emptied by his extravagance as soon as filled.

Although Henry VIII's motive in making his realm a Protestant country was more than questionable, he nevertheless conferred a great benefit upon England by freeing her from the tyranny of the church. His sickly son, after a brief reign, desiring to keep England from his Catholic sister Mary, left the throne to gentle Lady Gray, who paid for ten days' royalty with her life.

Mary, having thus secured the crown, imprisoned her Protestant sister Elizabeth, and made great efforts to reconcile England to the church and bring her subjects back to the fold. Although these efforts were carried on with such ruthless severity that she earned the nickname of Bloody Mary, all this persecution did not bring about the result she wished, or even secure the favour of her husband, Philip II of Spain. Still, for his sake she made war against France, thus losing Calais, which the English had held more than two hundred years.

Hoping to keep England true to the church, Mary excluded her sister Elizabeth from the succession under the plea of illegitimacy, and in dying left the throne to her next of kin, Mary Stuart, who had married the Dauphin Francis. The English, in their dread of seeing England united to France, repudiated this will, and Elizabeth wore the crown for forty-five years. During her reign she not only had to contend against the Catholic party and Mary Stuart (whom she beheaded after detaining her in prison nineteen years), but also against

Philip II, whom Mary also made her heir in preference to her Protestant son. It was to vindicate this claim that Philip II sent forth the Invincible Armada, which, in connection with Alva's army in the Netherlands, was to effect the conquest of England.

But when the ships came into view of the English coast, "Jehovah blew and they were scattered," Drake, Raleigh, Hawkins, etc., winning great renown by their prowess, — renown which was, however, eclipsed by their voyages of discovery and colonisation.

Meantime Elizabeth's coquetry, despotism, common-sense, parsimony, and love of flattery and display were all turned to good account by herself or by her clever ministers and advisers, until people watched for her nod as eagerly as the gods on Olympus for that of Jupiter, and the reign of Elizabeth is justly accounted England's Golden Age. Her progresses and love of pageants fostered a love for dramatic representations which found their greatest creator in William Shakespeare.

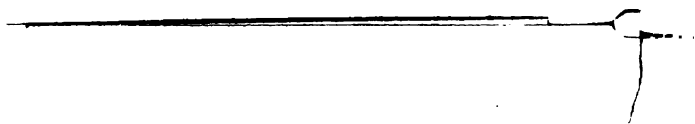
Although Elizabeth refused the sovereignty of the Netherlands, she nevertheless sent help to the House of Orange, and it was there that Sidney came to the glorious end worthy of an unselfish life.

To enumerate the benefits which Elizabeth conferred upon England, the progress made in every branch during her eventful reign, the discoveries, famous writers, artists, etc., would require much space. It suffices to state that at her death, in 1603, England had reached so high a rank among European powers that it was second to none when James I came to the throne.

The first Stuart, the vulgar James I, united Scotland and England, escaped the perils of the Gunpowder Plot, had the Bible translated, drove the Puritans to seek homes elsewhere, and sought an alliance with Spain for his son Charles, an alliance which proved equally distasteful to the young prince and to the House of Commons.

The despotic rule of James I sowed seeds of trouble, which were fostered by Charles I, under whose reign the religious question was agitated with more bitterness than

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ever. Finally came the disagreements between king and Parliament, — disagreements which had either money or religion as a basis, and which culminated in the Revolution, with the imprisonment and execution of the king and the establishment of the English Commonwealth, under Cromwell's Protectorship.

The reign of Charles had seen the arts flourish under Van Dyke, and the rise of Milton, whose *Paradise Lost* is the great English epic. It was also the age of emigration and colonisation, as well as of growth of national spirit and independence. Then came the government of Cromwell, which was no less arbitrary, although far more firm than that of his predecessor, but when his hand dropped the sceptre, none of his race was found capable of carrying on the work he had begun.

Less than a year, therefore, after Cromwell's demise, Charles II, "who never said a foolish thing and never did a wise one," mounted the throne of his father and began the reign which was to transform the grave England of the Puritans into the "Merrie England" of the Restoration. Under his sway the country plunged deeper and deeper into gambling, drinking, and debt, and was visited by the Plague, followed by the Great Fire, which swept away many of the landmarks of Old London.

Charles II's happy-go-lucky career ended, James II came to the throne, and by his ill-advised Catholic policy so incensed the majority of his subjects that he was driven out of the kingdom, his infant son stigmatised as "Pretender," and the crown offered to his daughter Mary, who had married the Prince of Orange.

The "Peaceful Revolution of 1688" marks the definite triumph of Protestantism in England, and William and Mary jointly ruled England, Scotland, and Ireland from 1689 to 1702. They furthered the cause of reform, not only in religion but also in politics, and when they died without heirs, the throne was occupied by their sister Anne.

Good Queen Anne, although a nonentity personally, lived in an age when arts, literature, and commerce thrived.

apace, and when Marlborough's victories on the continent brought great glory to England, while the capture of Gibraltar assured her the "key to the Mediterranean."

With the death of Anne, "the last of the Stuarts," the sceptre passed to the House of Hanover, and in George I England had a stolid German king. He was, though, a mere figure-head, for the real power was exercised by Walpole, his prime minister. Ever since then the ministry, or cabinet and prime minister, has remained unchanged and in office as long as Parliament approved its measures, and constitutional government is now firmly established in Great Britain.

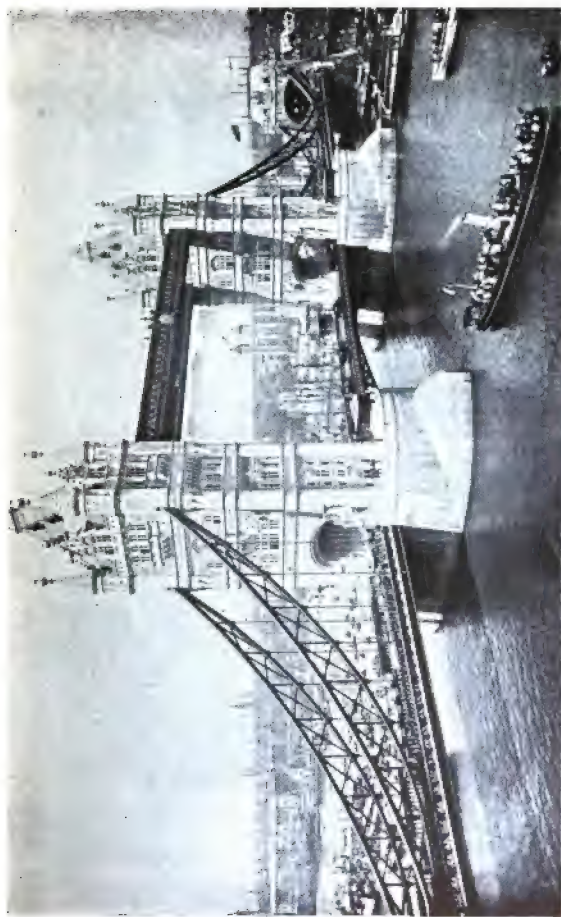
Although the South Sea Bubble, by bursting, caused the ruin of many, it taught England that industry is a surer and safer road to wealth than speculation. The reigns of George I and George II were disturbed by the claims of the Old and Young Pretenders, but after the battle of Culloden (1746) the Stuarts retired to Rome, where they died in obscurity. Under George III England lost the Thirteen Colonies, and was forced to recognise the political independence of the United States, but during this war further progress was made, for the English press then assumed its office as a factor for reform.

In the following reign the impeachment of Hastings revealed such cruelty and corruption in the affairs of the East India Company, that England assumed its management in 1784 and has retained it ever since.

With the outbreak of the French Revolution and the consequent wars waged against France by the allied powers, England won many laurels, especially in the naval battles of St. Vincent, Camperdown, the Nile, and Trafalgar.

All throughout Napoleon's meteoric career, England was pitted against France, winning at Waterloo a victory which delivered Napoleon into her hands, thus enabling her to detain him prisoner at St. Helena until his death, in 1821.

During the early part of the nineteenth century many artistic and literary lights shone brightly in England,



Tower Bridge and Thames, London



Shakespeare at the Court of Elizabeth, Ender

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where the inventions of Watt, Stevenson, and Fulton were to revolutionise manufacture and locomotion by land and by sea.

Ireland, which had been ruled for a time by a separate Parliament, was united to England in 1801, and after the struggle in which O'Connell won the gratitude of his fellow countrymen, Catholics were allowed to fill all offices save those of Regent, Lord Chancellor, and Lord Lieutenant.

George IV, who won undesirable notoriety by his matrimonial affairs, was succeeded by his sailor brother William IV, under whose reign the Reform Act was passed, doing away with the "rotten boroughs" and making Parliament the truly representative body which it had long ceased to be owing to the unchanged legislation of five hundred years in regard to its composition.

It was at this epoch that the political parties so long known as Whigs and Tories changed to Conservatives and Liberals, — names still in daily use in Great Britain, where the Reform Bill of 1832 was speedily followed by the suppression of negro slavery.

When William died, in 1837, he was succeeded by his niece Victoria, during whose long and glorious reign England became the greatest sea power in the world, besides ranking among the first in all military, scientific, industrial, and literary pursuits.

The marriage of the queen in 1840, the prominent part she played in public affairs, the able men who acted as her prime ministers, the wars which extended England's power on all sides, are all interesting factors in the development of the country, which must be studied in detail to be fully appreciated.

It was in England, also, that the first World's Fair or Exposition was held in 1851, and seven years later cable connection with America established almost instantaneous communication between the Old and New Worlds.

The death of Prince Albert in 1861 removed one of the queen's best advisers, and cast great gloom over the English court. Still, the queen was well surrounded,

and so ably counselled that she continued to govern wisely. By purchasing a large share of the Suez Canal Stock, England acquired the control of that waterway, and Gibraltar, Malta, and the Suez Canal are now her stepping-stones along the path to India, where a vast confederation of once independent states recognised Victoria Empress of India in 1876.

To touch upon England's share in the many wars of Europe, Asia, and Africa during the nineteenth century would require far more space than this sketch affords, so it suffices to state that her policy of progress and extension has been strictly maintained.

Having lived to see her Golden and Diamond Jubilees, the queen passed away, honoured more than queen has ever been, leaving a prosperous country and grateful people in the keeping of her son, Edward VII, the present King of Great Britain and Ireland, and Emperor of India.

### Chronology of Great Britain

B. C. 1000	Phœnicians.	596	St. Augustine. Canterbury.
B. C. 55-449	A. D. Roman Period.	835-871	Danish and Norman invasions.
	Cymbeline, Caractacus, Boadicea.	871-901	Alfred the Great. Oxford founded.
449-1066	Saxon Period. Heptarchy.	1013	Sweyn conquers England.
506	Arthur.		

#### *Danish Dynasty. 1017-1042.*

1016-1035	Canute rules England.	1066	Battle of Hastings or Senlac.
1042-1066	Edward the Confessor. Westminster.		Norman Conquest of England. Death of Harold.

#### *Norman Dynasty. 1066-1154.*

1066-1087	William I the Conqueror.	1100-1135	Henry I.
1087-1100	William II Rufus.	1135-1154	Stephen.

#### *Plantagenet Dynasty. 1154-1485.*

1154-1189	Henry II.	1272-1307	Edward I.
1189-1199	Richard I.	1307-1327	Edward II.
1199-1216	John I.	1327-1377	Edward III.
1216-1272	Henry III.	1377-1399	Richard II.



Grand Harbour, Malta  
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Old Man of Storr, Hebrides

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*Lancaster Dynasty. 1399-1416.*

1399-1413	Henry IV.	1422-1461	Henry VI.
1413-1422	Henry V.		

*York Dynasty. 1461-1485.*

1461-1483	Edward IV.	1483-1485	Richard III.
1483	Edward V.		

*Tudor Dynasty. 1485-1603.*

1485-1509	Henry VII.	1553-1558	Mary.
1509-1547	Henry VIII.	1558-1603	Elizabeth.
1547-1553	Edward VI.		

*Stuart Dynasty. 1603-1649.*

1603-1625	James I.	1625-1649	Charles I.
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*Commonwealth. 1649-1660.*

1649-1658	Cromwell.	1658-1660	Richard Cromwell.
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*Restoration of Stuart Dynasty. 1660-1714.*

1660-1685	Charles II.	1689-1702	William and Mary.
1685-1688	James II.	1702-1714	Anne.

*Hanover Dynasty. 1714-*

1714-1727	George I.	1830-1837	William IV.
1727-1760	George II.	1837-1901	Victoria.
1760-1820	George III.	1901-	Edward VII.
1820-1830	George IV.		

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## XI

### TRAVEL IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

YOUR itinerary in Great Britain and Ireland will in all probability be greatly modified, not only by the point where you land and the amount you can afford to expend, but also and principally by the time you can devote to that country, and your special tastes and inclinations.

It is assumed that while reviewing English history, art, and literature, you have made note of the places which you would specially like to visit, and the things you most wish to see. With these notes and a good local guide it is comparatively easy to map out an itinerary, for Baedeker, Cook, Murray, etc. supply estimates of distances and cost which form a good basis for computations.

Your preparatory reading must especially have called your attention to nearly all there is of interest in London and vicinity, where all who visit England spend some part of their time, and which is so fascinating that Dr. Johnson justly says, "He who is tired of London is tired of existence." It is during the "Season" (May, June, and the beginning of July) that London can be viewed at its best. Not only is the weather more apt to be clear and fine, but the fact that the city then holds its wealthiest population tends to give it a particularly festive air.

It is during the Season, also, when Parliament is in session and "Drawing Rooms" afford opportunity for the yearly "presentations," that most of the social functions are in full swing, and that theatres, operas, and concert halls offer their greatest attractions. In fact, the English crowd seen in the parks and streets at this



**The Marriage Contract, Hogarth**

pp. 116, 409



Land's End, England

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season differs greatly from the work-a-day population beheld at other times, or even from the tourist tide which reaches its height during July and August.

Late spring, or early summer, with its brief hours of darkness, is therefore considered the best time to view the southern part of Ireland and England. Not only are cities then seen at their best, but the country also, where the flowering hedgerows — the English hawthorne in particular — can be enjoyed in all its fragrant daintiness. The wild flowers, cowslips, pink-tipped daisies, etc. are also then at their most charming point, and there is nothing more delightful than to walk, ride, or drive through hamlets and lanes, visiting the more remote and unfrequented places, and stopping at village inns, whose age and quaintness often atone for their utter lack of modern hotel comforts. The summer season is everywhere viewed as the most favourable for the seashore, and England, Scotland, and Ireland offer every variety of beach that has been ever known. There are the sheltered bays of Ventnor and Torquay, as well as the crowded sands of Brighton, the rocky, picturesque coast resorts of Cornwall (Land's End) and Wales, the huge cliffs of Dover and along the North Sea, and the barren rocky shores of Scotland, the Orkneys, and the Hebrides, where you behold such queer rocks as the Old Man of Storr.

Many people who visit England either have a Cathedral Pilgrimage in view, — which, if complete, will take them to various parts of the island, and afford many opportunities besides those connected with archæology and architecture in all its phases, — or others, whose tastes are rather bookish than artistic or ecclesiastical, have in mind a visit to the Lake Region, with all its romantic and literary associations, or perchance merely an excursion to Stratford-on-Avon. Some tourists prefer botany or farming, with the glimpses of rural life which can be obtained here and there. These will delight in the quaint herds of geese and ducks, in the shepherds with their flocks and dogs, and will prefer to study the

villager, yeoman, and country squire at home. England's fields, gardens, and trees are unsurpassed, and the great parks, with oaks, elms, and beeches dating far back, — aye, even to the Conqueror's time in some cases, — are a subject of wonder and admiration for all. "The green lanes, the thatch-roofed cottages, the meadows glorious with wild flowers, the little churches covered with dark green ivy, the Tudor fronts festooned with roses, the devious footpaths that wind across wild heaths and long and lonesome fields, the narrow, shining rivers, brimful to their banks, crossed here and there with gray and moss-grown bridges, the stately elms, whose low-hanging branches drop over a turf of emerald velvet, the gnarled beech trees 'that wreathe their old fantastic roots so high,' the rooks that caw and circle in the air, the sweet winds that blow from the fragrant woods, the sheep and deer that rest in shady places, the pretty children who cluster round the porches of their cleanly, cosy homes, and peep at the wayfarer as he passes, the numerous and often brilliant birds that at times fill the air with music, the brief, light, pleasant rains, that ever and anon refresh the landscape — these are some of the every-day joys of rural England, and these are wrapped in a climate that makes life one sweet ecstasy."

Rural life in all its phases, that of the fisher-folk along shore, and factory life in crowded centres, have all their own peculiar interest, as has that of the miners in the great districts whence hard and soft coal, iron and tin, are extracted. England is not only studded with towns, — some of which date back to Roman occupation, — but also with castles and manor houses, no less than five hundred of which contain interesting pictures, sculptures, and objects of art as well as famous libraries. Most of these places can be visited, if you go about it tactfully, for the English are most obliging in this respect, and even throw open to the public at stated times dwellings of special interest, such as Warwick and Alnwick castles, the homes of the "king-maker" and of Percy "Hotspur."





**Alnwick Castle, England**

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Conway Castle, Wales  
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The United Kingdom is now covered with such a network of well-managed railways that it is comparatively easy to travel all over it at moderate cost. Besides railways, England's waterways and shipping are a just subject for pride. The engineering feats accomplished in bridging over or tunnelling under the rivers, in the immense shipyards where Atlantic liners and great battleships are constructed, in the appliances for loading and unloading barges and vessels, in the great tidal docks, while they can best be appreciated by those who have studied the matter in detail, in one form or another may excite the wonder and admiration of the casual beholder.

To those for whom sport is an attraction, England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland offer great variety. Fishermen will find quiet streams and lakes where peaceful hours may be spent in angling, or can indulge in the more exciting pastime of casting for trout or salmon in the season. But, of course, it behooves sportsmen to respect all extant rules and regulations, for "poaching" is a serious offence and therefore severely punished.

There are, in all local guide books, sufficient directions to enable the would-be sportsman in any line to discover what would suit him if he cares to investigate the matter. Besides fishing and shooting in England (the latter mostly in private preserves), there are also moors which can be hired in Scotland, where partridge and deer abound, for, when the season opens, Scotland becomes the happy hunting-ground for countless sport enthusiasts.

It is in August, too, that Scotland and Wales are most attractive to scenery lovers, and for that reason they are great vacation haunts. In the Highlands bracing air and beautiful views are the main attraction, while sailing, fishing, and bathing draw many people to the picturesque coasts.

Steamer excursions to all points of interest are so frequent, and so reasonable in cost, that throngs crowd the vessels during the season, amply testifying to the

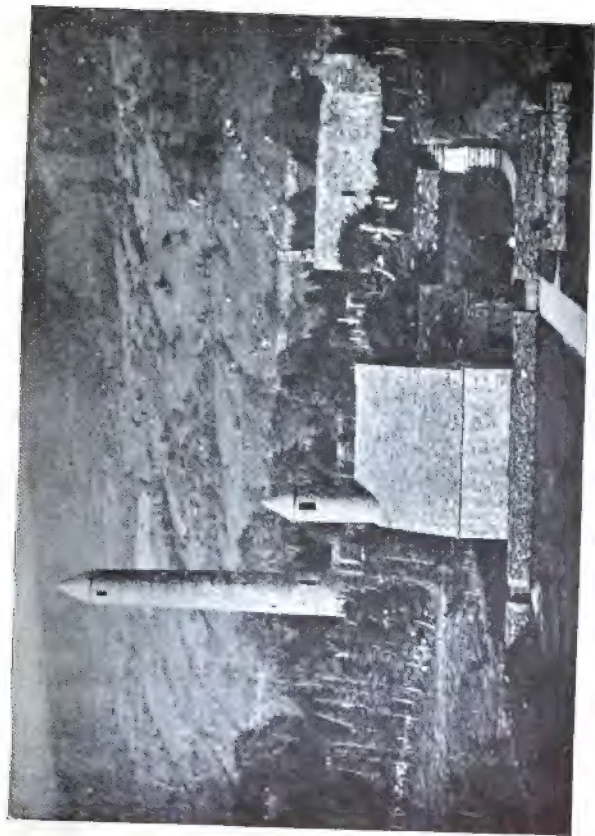
attractions of those regions, if such testimony is necessary to a generation familiar with the novels of William Black, to mention one only of the many writers who helped to make them popular.

Besides hunting and picturesque charms, Scotland possesses so romantic a historical record that the homes of kings, queens, and nobles have a never-dying interest for all who know the past of the country. It is also uncommonly rich in literary associations, and there are few tourists who do not visit Edinburgh, where so many writers received their education and began to climb the ladder of fame, or Abbotsford, whose name seems linked to those of the ruined abbeys of Melrose and Dryburgh, — shrines which all long to behold.

Unless this chapter consisted of an unbroken series of names, it would be impossible to enumerate all the points of interest to be recommended in the United Kingdom. But the traveller preparing leisurely for a journey thither can readily discover what there is to see along the road he or she means to travel, and according to the time at his or her disposal, and individual tastes, can plan what shall be viewed and what omitted.

But it is well always to bear in mind that if you want to know the people of a country, you can more quickly do so by living among them, in a region unfrequented by tourists, and in rather small centres in preference to cosmopolite places like London, Dublin, Edinburgh, etc., where the influx of strangers from all parts of the world is so great and constant, that you often meet people of every nationality in the course of a few hours, and far more foreigners than English born and bred people. If possible, arrange your plans so as to stroll through English lanes, to drive in a jaunting-car along such pleasant places as Ireland's Valley of Churches or around the Lake of Killarney, to linger for a while on the Scottish moors and see the changing colours of the heather, and to visit the mountains and rocky coast of Wales.

The books describing England and English ways are

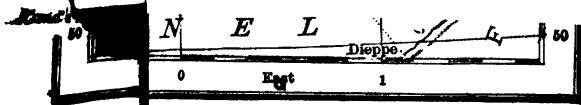


**Valley of Seven Churches, Ireland**

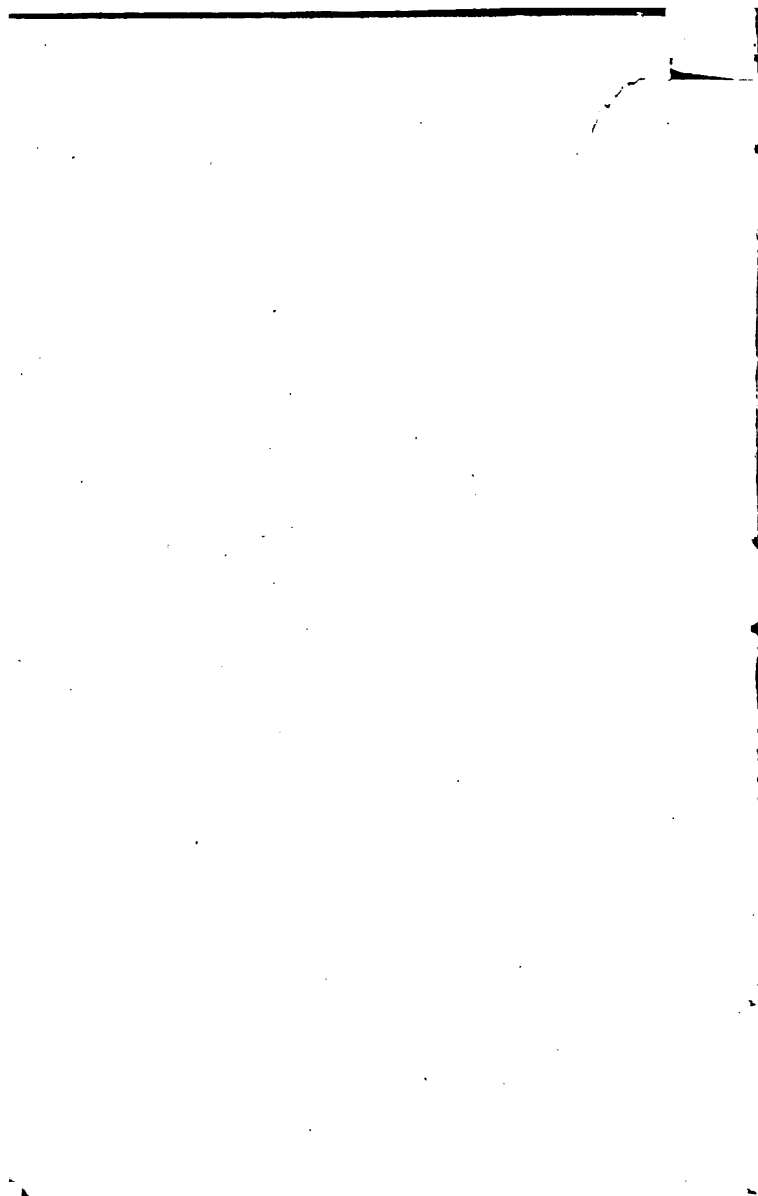
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Lakes of Killarney, Ireland  
pp. 10, 120



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legion, so are those of distinctly Scotch, or "kailyard" flavour, and those which bring Ireland's wit and poverty vividly before us. In novels you will find these people more or less ably described, according to the talent of the author you select, and in books on history, biography, travel, and description you can discover most of the rest any one cares to know.

It is well, however, to do your reading in advance, unless you have ample leisure at your disposal while travelling, and know exactly where you are going, what you wish to see, and how much time you can spare to do so. The tourist who wastes precious time in reading what a guide book says about an object of interest when the moments could be better employed in studying the subject itself, is foolishly wasting time and opportunities, as is the traveller who asks questions about matters which could easily have been learned before starting on his travels.

Still, while the asking of needless or foolish questions should be deprecated, one can always learn from one's fellow-travellers, or from chance acquaintances, and the art and tact necessary to elicit the best from all you meet is a faculty which all covet and which can in a measure be cultivated.

Sometimes questions elicit pithy and characteristic answers, an instance being Goldwin Smith's query at Oxford regarding the recipe for making the superb English lawns. He was told: "It is the simplest thing in the world; you have only to mow and roll regularly for about four hundred years!"

It is this atmosphere of stability and age which, after all, lends the greatest charm to a visit to the mother country, where the longer we sojourn the more we learn to appreciate and admire land and people with which we have the great kindred tie of language and literature.

While late spring and early summer has been designated as the most favourable time to see England, it has undeniable charms at every season, — charms which each traveller must learn to know and feel; and although

winters are cold, owing principally to the extreme dampness, even fogs have peculiar attractions, and there are few Americans who would care to forego one experience, at least, of the peculiarities and humours of a London fog, if they have once had the good fortune to be caught in its toils.

For delicate or rheumatic people, or for "a person who even in heaven would complain that his cloud was damp and his halo a misfit," the old country may have drawbacks. People who have appreciation only for money and size have also been known to complain of restricted space, one of them even stating that he religiously abstained from going out at night "for fear of falling off" the island, which to him seemed so crampingly small. But, for the sensible, healthful tourist, its charms are endless, and the advantage to be derived from the visit is simply inestimable.

Concerning the United Kingdom, as concerning the continent, we heartily echo Dean Farrar's remark in regard to Westminster Abbey: "What such a visit might mean to a man of universal knowledge, unlimited interest, and complete sympathy, no one can understand." But while such perfection is unattainable, striving towards it, even in a small measure, is sure to bring its own reward.

### English Money Table

	Approximate values.	Abbreviations.	Metal.
Halfpenny (ha'penny) . . .	= 1 ct.	$\frac{1}{2}$ d.	copper.
Onepenny . . . . .	= 2 cts.	1 d.	copper.
Twopence (tuppence) . . .	= 4 cts.	2 d.	silver.
Threepence (thrippence) . .	= 6 cts.	3 d.	silver.
Sixpence . . . . .	= 12 cts.	6 d.	silver.
One shilling . . . . .	= 25 cts.	s. or /	silver.
Two shillings (or florin) . .	= 50 cts.	2 s. or 2/	silver.
Half a crown or two and sixpence . . . . .	= 62 cts.	2 s. 6 d. or 2/6 d.	silver.
Four shillings . . . . .	= \$1.00	4 s.	not a coin.
Five shillings or a crown . .	= \$1.25	5 s.	silver.
Ten shillings or $\frac{1}{2}$ sovereign .	= \$2.50	10 s. or $\frac{1}{2}$ sov.	gold.



Loch Katrine and Ben Venue  
pp 10, 119



The Tolbooth and Canongate, Edinburgh

English Money Table—*continued*

	Approximate values.	Abbreviations.	Metal.
One sovereign (20 shillings) =	\$5.00	sov.	gold.
One pound (20 shillings) . . =	\$5.00	£	gold.
Guinea (21 shillings) . . . =	\$5.25	guinea	not a coin.

The legal value of the English pound = \$4.866.

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## XII

### HISTORY OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA

THE German lands, once under the sway of the Holy Roman Empire, included the mountainous region of Switzerland and Tyrol, the wooded heights of the Black Forest and upper Danube, and the fertile valleys along the six great streams which drain its soil, emptying in the North, Baltic, and Black seas.

Toward the north the land becomes flat and sandy, and is often enveloped in the cold fogs which sweep down from the Baltic Sea. In the northeast Holland, formed entirely from alluvial soil, is preserved from the inroads of the sea only by its huge system of dykes. The lower stretches of the Danube are also low and marshy, but, owing to the difference of latitude, the cold fogs there are replaced by miasmatic mists.

As there is every variety of temperature and altitude in the stretch of country extending between the North and Black seas, the vegetation is varied, and includes all that can thrive in the north and south temperate zones.

When first mentioned in the historical records which have been preserved, the country had already been long occupied by the blue-eyed, fair-haired warrior race which Tacitus describes. They had not only a fixed religion and well-established tribal government, based on ancient customs, but many traditions of a vanished race, whose grave-mounds and other remains bore witness to their sojourn in that region. Although popularly called "Huns' graves," these burial-places long antedate the arrival of the Huns on the scene of action in Europe, as well as that of the numerous northern tribes, Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Germans, Alemanni, Franks, Goths, etc. These evidently all belonged to the same race, so for con-



venience' sake they are generally classed together as Deutsch or Teutons.

Except in literature, we have very few traces of the old Teutonic religion, for their temples were either oak groves, or wooden constructions which could not resist the tooth of time, even had they not, as a rule, fallen a prey to devouring and obliterating flames. That the Teutons had statues of their divinities is quite certain, but as these also were carved from wood, they too have mostly perished. The northern religion, carefully preserved in Iceland long after it had vanished from Germany, is embodied in the Eddas. Traces of it also are found in the folk-tales, quaint legends, and famous epic cycles, which, however, have been recast since olden times, and therefore retain only a part of the ancient heathen atmosphere and traditions. These traditions, and especially the great epic cycles, have proved nearly as rich a mine for poets as the old Greek tales, and many painters, sculptors, and musicians have also sought inspiration in their pages.

The numerous allusions to the old mythology in literature, and the frequent illustrations of the deeds of the ancient Teutonic heroes in art, make it incumbent upon us to familiarise ourselves with the outline at least of the northern religion and epics, the greatest of these last being the world-famous Nibelungenlied. It forms not only the subject of the fine mural decorations of the Pinacothek in Munich, but also inspired part of the famous opera cycle which attracts so many music lovers to Bayreuth, or to any musical centre where these works are given.

Because the English-speaking race belongs to the Anglo-Saxon branch of the great Teutonic family, northern mythology has a peculiar interest for us, and there are many traces of that old belief, not only in our language, where even the names borne by the days recall the old deities to which they were dedicated, but also by many of our customs, such as those of Yuletide and Easter, to mention only two of the great festivals

celebrated also by our heathen ancestors, although, of course, for very different reasons.

Before the Christian era the Romans had already come into contact with the northern barbarians, for not only had Marius been forced to check the threatened invasion of Teutons and Cimbri, but Cæsar had encountered and defeated the Helvetii, and bridged the Rhine for the first time. After Varus' disaster in the Teutoberg forest, and Hermann's (Arminius') triumph, the Romans, wishing to protect their empire from the inroads of the barbarians, dug a canal in Holland and erected a line of fifty forts along the Rhine. Many of these strongholds ultimately became towns, such as Cologne, Mayence, Spire, Trèves, etc., which all date back to Roman days, and from these camps the Romans first began to visit the Thermal Springs which fashion still frequents.

In spite of the fact that the German tribes — like the bees in an over-full hive — were constantly rising and attempting to cross the Rhine and Danube, the Roman legions held them in check for many a year, and even erected a great wall between the Rhine and Danube, where, as no great stream formed a natural barrier, the restless barbarians could most easily cross. Then, little by little, as Roman strength weakened, the barbarians pressed closer and closer, and finally some were allowed to cross the boundaries and settle on the Roman banks of the Rhine and Danube.

We have seen in other chapters how the Franks, Burgundians, and Visigoths settled in France, how the Ostrogoths and Lombards, after crossing the Danube, founded kingdoms in Northern Italy, and how the Vandals, after sweeping through France and Spain, established an African kingdom at Carthage, from whence they threatened Rome itself.

The first great chief of Teutonic strain after Hermann and the Saxon Wittekind is Charlemagne, the hero of legend and song, and one of the colossi of history.

In fifty-three campaigns and during a reign of forty-

eight years, Charlemagne contrived to conquer all the land now included in Germany, Holland, Belgium, France, North Spain, Italy, Switzerland, and a large part of Austria. He also compelled the nations he conquered to receive baptism, thus effectually aiding St. Boniface, the brave apostle of Germany, as well as other devoted missionaries.

In return for his donation to the Holy See after the Lombard Wars, Charlemagne received the imperial crown and title of Emperor of the West in the year 800. As he was henceforth champion of the Christian Church in the West, the empire over which he ruled was called, "The *Holy* Roman Empire," a name which endured until 1806. Some historians claim an unbroken succession of rulers for the Holy Roman Empire, but others concede that title only to the German kings who were crowned with certain ceremonies at Rome itself. A few, however, insist that the Holy Roman Empire really begins with Otto I, and they call Charlemagne and his successors rulers of the Western Roman Empire.

Charlemagne's personality and genius contrived to hold together the widely differing races from which the Dutch, Belgian, German, French, Spanish, Swiss, Italian, and Austro-Hungarian nations have been formed. None of his successors were, however, gifted with the same power, either as warriors or legislators, and long before his race died out in utter insignificance, his vast empire fell to pieces, owing to petty quarrels and jealousies, as well as to the inroads of the Normans, whose advent and ravages Charlemagne foresaw.

Charlemagne had barely rested in his grave at Aix-la-Chapelle half a century, when, by the treaty of Mersen, and the division of the "buffer state Lotharingia," the vexed question of the Rhine frontier was first agitated between the French and Germans, — a question solved time and again by bloody wars, but which even that of 1870 cannot with certainty be said to have settled definitely. Because ancient northern tribes always *elected* their chiefs, although generally from some family de-

scended from their chief god Wuotan (Odin), the Germans always felt they had an inborn right to select their own ruler, and to depose him in case he did not meet their expectations. Thus, they deposed Charles IV the Fat, a successor of Charlemagne, and delighted in the triumphs of Arnulf, who not only conquered the Normans — to whom this Charles basely paid tribute — but swept down into Italy and besieged Rome itself.

Under his successor, Louis "the Child," arose the great stem-duchies, for the poor regent mother, wishing to keep great vassals loyal to her son, lavishly bestowed landed estates upon them. In spite of her generosity, the lords did not stand very staunchly by her, and during her son's short reign the Huns, or Hungarians, invaded the country every year, thus causing untold damages and suffering. This last direct successor of Charlemagne having died childless, the great vassals next proceeded to elect Conrad of Franconia, who, when dying, recommended the election of Henry I "the Fowler" of Saxony, as his successor.

After signing a ten-year truce with the Hungarians, this wise ruler began to build fortresses all along the frontier, exacting that one out of every nine freemen should live within them for a year and be trained as a soldier, while the other eight supported him. As the freemen served as soldiers and warders in turn, at the end of ten years all were well trained, and the emperor, sure of an army, not only refused to pay tribute, but insulted the Hungarian ambassadors so grossly that war speedily ensued.

But this time the Hungarians were baffled, for Henry's soldiers withdrew into their burgs (fortresses), from which the foe could not dislodge them. From this safe shelter they made sudden sallies, or poured arrows down upon their foes, who, after losing thirty thousand men at the battle of Merseburg, beat a hasty retreat. Henry the Fowler is therefore often called "the city-builder," for it is he who started the German cities, built around these fortresses, giving also the first rights and priv-

illeges to their defenders, the "burghers" or hereditary champions of the towns. He also has the credit of founding the order of knighthood in Germany, and he and his henchmen are said to have drawn up the code of chivalry so long in use there, "to be true to church and country, true in everything, gentle to women, and courageous." This reign therefore marks the real beginning of the so-called "Age of Chivalry," which in Germany lasted until about 1300, and was a great influence for good during more than three centuries.

The wisdom of Henry I's measures was further demonstrated when, twenty-two years later, the Hungarians made a new raid, intending this time to attack Augsburg, where many merchants and manufacturers had settled and grown rich. But the town was so well protected by walls and by a moat, and the Hungarians were so badly routed, that they never ventured to invade Germany again.

The military reforms of Henry I were followed by the ecclesiastical and constitutional reforms of Otto I, who, after being crowned King of Germany at Aix-la-Chapelle, received the imperial crown at Rome. It will be impossible to name all the bearers of the imperial honours in this brief sketch, so we will only mention Henry II "the Holy and Lame," founder of many churches and the patron-saint of Germany. He is the last of the Saxon line, for his successor, Conrad II, begins the line of Salian-Frank emperors. Both Conrad and his son were wise sovereigns, but as the latter died young, the crown passed to his six-year-old son, during whose minority the vassals greatly increased in power and independence. The young king, after a deplorable youth, alienated these vassals, and was summoned to Rome to account for his conduct. But as he derided the Pope instead of obeying his summons, excommunication ensued, and it was only when he perceived that all were deserting him that Henry IV crossed the Alps in winter and did penance in the snow at Canossa. Having thereby recovered papal favour and authority over his rebellious subjects,

Henry next craftily proceeded to avenge himself for the great humiliation he had undergone. This is the epoch of anti-kings as well as anti-popes, and all is in a state of turmoil, when the crusading fever suddenly spreads from land to land, and all former quarrels are forgotten in the general burning desire to take part in the Holy War.

The exodus of the most turbulent and adventurous element, especially among the nobles, afforded the distracted country a short respite, and with the settlement of the vexed question of investiture at the Council of Rheims, 1119, the great bone of contention between Popes and emperors was finally removed.

It was the last of the Saxon emperors, who bestowed the Northmark (Prussia) upon Albert the Bear, who in 1163 founded the present city of Berlin. But although all this region had been evangelised by St. Adalbert (997), it was conquered and re-converted by the Teutonic Knights at their return from the Holy Land, when they founded the cities of Thorn and Königsberg.

Meantime, the faithful knight who escorted Henry IV to Canossa had been rewarded by the Duchy of Swabia and the hand of the king's daughter. It was he who built the castle from which he and his descendants derive their illustrious name of Hohenstaufen, and, in spite of strong opposition on the part of the Duke of Bavaria, this knight's son Conrad was elected to the empire. In the feud which this election kindled, the partisans of Conrad were called Waiblingers (from the town of Waiblingen in Swabia), while the adherents of the Duke of Bavaria used their master's name "Welf" as a rallying cry. As usual, the Pope became involved in the quarrel, and, as he supported the Welfs, the Lombard cities followed suit. Because there is no such sound in Italian as *W* "Welf" in Italy became "Guelf," and "Waiblingen" "Ghibelline," terms by which the two parties were famous in Italy during the time that this papal-imperial feud lasted.

The Hohenstaufen epoch is also that of the German Crusades, when new ideas were kindled, and when the

return of pilgrims and crusaders with priceless relics stimulated the building of shrines, churches, and such wonderful cathedrals as those of Strasburg and Cologne.

It was also in the beginning of Conrad's reign that the women of Weinsberg, being allowed to leave the city "with their most precious treasures," came forth bearing their husbands, lovers, fathers, brothers, or sons on their backs, thus saving them from the death to which they had been condemned. This emperor was the first to adopt the double-headed eagle, borne by Byzantine emperors to represent the double empire — east and west — over which they were supposed to rule.

It is in 1156 that we first hear of Austria, which was then only a fragment lopped off from Bavaria, and given with the title of Duke to a faithful vassal. But the newly formed duchy was before long to occupy a very prominent part in German history, as you know.

The greatest and most picturesque of all the German emperors, after Charlemagne, is undoubtedly Frederick I Barbarossa, the red-bearded Hohenstaufen, who crossed the Alps several times in the vain hope of subduing the rebel Lombard cities. After a terrible defeat at Legnano, however, Frederick returned to Germany, and having divided Saxony between the Bavarians and Austrians, he set out on the Crusade from which he was never to return. Tradition nevertheless claims that he is not dead, but sleeping under the Kyffhäuser Mountain, ready to come forth and fight whenever Germany's freedom is in peril.

Of his successors, Henry VI is famous for his detention of Richard Cœur-de-Lion and for the conquest of Naples and Sicily, Otto IV for his defeat at Bouvines, and Frederick II for saving Europe from Mongol rule by his victory at Liegnitz in 1241. Notwithstanding this great service, and the fact that he undertook a Crusade, this emperor fell under papal ban, for the old quarrel was still in full force. The German and Italian cities and nobles speedily took advantage of this fact to become as independent as possible. But the emperor

himself cared little for papal displeasure, and gloried openly in his seven crowns (the royal crown of Germany, the imperial diadem of Rome, the iron circlet of Lombardy, and the crowns of Sicily, Burgundy, Sardinia, and Jerusalem).

At Frederick II's death the Pope arbitrarily gave Naples to Charles of Anjou, who unjustly beheaded the sixteen-year-old Conradin (son of Frederick) when he tried to recover his patrimony. Enzo, brother of Conradin (the last of the Hohenstaufens and therefore heir to the seven crowns), was imprisoned by the Bolognese. Placed in an empty wine-cask, he might have escaped, had not one of his golden locks fallen out of the bung-hole, which was left open so that he could breathe. The poor prince, thus discovered, was thrust back into prison, where he was locked in an iron cage for safety's sake, and he died there after a confinement of twenty-three weary years.

When the Hohenstaufen line ended, dark days dawned for Germany. It was the time of disputed elections, — two foreigners, Richard of Cornwall and Alphonso of Castille, contending for the imperial crown which no German prince was willing to accept. It was also a lawless age, for there were then no less than two hundred and seventy-six virtually independent states in Germany, and might alone was right. Robber-knights throve, and the great lords whose duty it was to patrol the roads to insure the safety of merchants, tow vessels up stream, and entertain travellers in their castles, or (in time of peace) in the town or village house over which they hung their shields, had a hard time in maintaining such order and security as the country could boast. It was then too (1254) that the principal nobles formed the First Rhine Confederation, and the merchant cities the famous Hanseatic League. In time no less than eighty-five towns are said to have belonged to this commercial league, which established four great trading-centres at Bruges, Bergen, London, and Novgorod, where fairs were held at stated times.





**Sonneck Castle, the Rhine**  
pp. 134, 154



**Bas Relief, Tomb of Maximilian, Innsbruck**  
pp. 136, 160, 423, 443

The Hansa, at the head of which were the towns of Bremen, Lübeck, and Hamburg, had an army and navy of its own, and thus maintained law and order on land and sea with marked success.

In spite of the efforts of the priests who enforced the "Truce of God," of the Hansa with its army and fleet, and of the well-intentioned knights who restored the old secret tribunal, the Vehmgericht, to hold the robber-knights in check, it was self-evident that the empire needed a head. So the electors, whose number varied at different times, selected Rudolf of Hapsburg, a poor nobleman of Switzerland. A brave man, this emperor began by attacking Ottocar of Bohemia, whom he defeated and slew, thus recovering Austria, Styria, and Carinthia, which he added to his own private estates. This monarch is also famous in popular ballads for his knightly deeds, and his son and successor is the Albert whose murder forms a thrilling episode in Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell."

Although the Tell episode is now classed among myths, the fact remains that the tyranny of Austrian governors determined a rebellion in the cantons of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwald. They not only refused to be subject to Austria, but won the battle of Morgarten in 1315, the first of a series of victories which was ultimately to insure the freedom of the country.

A new quarrel about the elections resulted in the Golden Bull (1356), a document stating explicitly the number and names of temporal and ecclesiastical electors—the archbishops of Cologne (Köln), Mayence (Mainz), and Trèves (Trier), and the Prince Electors (Kurfürst) of Bohemia, Brandenburg, Saxony and the Palatinate of the Rhine,—and appointing Frankfort as the place where the election was to take place, and Aix-la-Chapelle for the coronation. This "Bulla" was issued shortly after the University of Prague had been founded, and just before that of Vienna began its famous career. The above-mentioned University of Prague attracted great and almost immediate attention

by the teachings of one of its professors, John Huss, the first of the famous reformers, who was burned at the stake in 1415. His unjust and illegal condemnation and death kindled in Bohemia what is known as the "Hussite War," the first of a long series of religious conflicts. The leader of the Hussites, John Ziska, — a man with one eye, — ravaged Bavaria, Franconia, and Saxony, showing the utmost cruelty on every occasion, and the war raged on, ending only after his death, when the Council of Basel granted concessions which satisfied the Hussites.

In 1438, after disastrous experiences with several emperors of other families, the electors chose another Hapsburg, Albert II, and from then until 1806 the office was hereditary in that family.

It was during the reign of sleepy Frederick III (Albert's son) that the Swiss Confederacy called the Gray Band asserted their independence, that the Turks invaded Austria, and that the Hungarians and Bohemians elected kings of their own. The inertia of this monarch offers a great contrast to the energy of his son Maximilian, — a clever and handsome prince, who, by his marriage with Mary of Burgundy, acquired all the Netherlands. It was under his rule that the first post-office service was organised in Germany, and until 1866 it remained more or less under control of the Turn and Taxis family, the originators of the plan, who acquired immense wealth by its means.

By the marriage of Maximilian's son Philip, to Joanna, heiress of all Spain, and by the recovery of Bohemia and Hungary, Maximilian paved the way for an empire which included all South, Central, and Western Europe, save France and England. But Maximilian's ambitious plans were never to be entirely realised, for new ideas did not favour a world empire. The discovery of printing and of the process of making paper from rags had not only given rise to the picturesque legend of John Faust, but had spread learning far and wide, and brought the Bible into general circulation. This fact

hastened the Reformation, with its bloody wars, the Hussite conflict being only the first of a series. The greatest of all these wars arose because the Pope, in order to build St. Peter's, authorised the sale of indulgences, and an unscrupulous friar made such bad use of that privilege in Germany that Luther was moved to publish his ninety-five famous theses at Wittenberg, thereby kindling the strife which was to involve all Western Europe.

About then, Charles V., grandson of Maximilian (king of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, and the Netherlands), was elected Emperor of Germany, an honour which Henry VIII of England and Francis I of France both coveted. Finding his estates too large to govern comfortably, Charles bestowed Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, and Tyrol upon his brother Ferdinand; so henceforth we meet with German and Spanish Hapsburgs.

It was in the beginning of Charles V's eventful reign that Luther refused to recant at the Diet of Worms, after which, fearing for his safety, his friends kept him nine months in the Wartburg, where he translated the Bible into the German familiar to all educated Teutons.

During Luther's quasi-imprisonment his followers proceeded even further in their reforms. Church property was confiscated, and the Margrave of Brandenburg, who was Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights, appropriated all their wealth and became head of the new duchy of Prussia. The general religious ferment precipitated a peasant uprising, and the peculiar outburst of fanaticism on the part of the Anabaptists at Münster, — a picturesque episode which furnished the theme for Meyerbeer's opera "The Prophet." Meantime Zwingli's preaching so fired several of the northern and western cantons in Switzerland, that they refused all further allegiance to the Pope, and adopted the religion which they still profess. Unfortunately, however, the various opponents of the Pope were not agreed; Calvin at Geneva preached a different doctrine from Luther at

Wittenberg. It was at the Spires Diet (1529) that Luther's partisans offered a protest,—whence they were termed Protestants,—while Calvin's disciples were designated by the term of Reformed.

Although many of the nobles and several of the electors had joined either the Calvin or the Luther faction, the Emperor Charles V was determined to win them all back into the bosom of the church. At Augsburg (1530) he gave them a certain length of time wherein to retract and submit, threatening them with his ban if they did not obey. The Protestants (the term here includes all those who opposed the Pope) then formed a league at Smalkald (1530) against the emperor, entering into a secret treaty with Francis I, who was only too happy to stir up trouble in his rival's lands. This league, with Luther and the Elector of Saxony at its head, proved such a menace that the church proceeded to reform many abuses at the Council of Trent, in 1545.

It was too late, however, to win back the Protestants; so Charles, after some fighting, deprived the Elector of Saxony of his estates, and bestowed them on another branch of the family which had remained loyal to the Pope until then. Strange to relate, however, one of these recipients of the emperor's favour soon turned Protestant too, and Charles V, beset on all sides by Protestants, Turks, and French, was only too glad to grant the Pacification of Passau, in 1552, which allowed full religious liberty to Protestants and Catholics alike.

Three years later, weary of warfare, Charles abdicated and retired to a monastery, where he died in 1558, Spain having meantime been given to his son Philip; and the imperial title passed to Ferdinand I, under whose reign the Protestants and Catholics continued the struggle for supremacy.

Under Maximilian II, Loyola's teachings first penetrated into Germany and the Protestant influence grew rapidly less in certain sections of the country. Minds were so embittered by religious contentions that the Thirty Years' War began in Bohemia (1618), from



Battle of Wagram, Bellangé, Versailles  
pp. 95, 140, 163, 404



Frederick the Great

p. 140



whence it was to spread all over Western Europe. This war is divided into periods, including the Bohemian period, when the councillors were thrown out of the window at Prague (1618-1623), and the Saxon-Danish period (1625-1626), when Wallenstein and Tilly opposed Gustavus Adolphus, who lost his life at the battle of Lützen. When the disastrous war finally concluded by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, there remained only four of Germany's seventeen million inhabitants, and the country was split up into about two hundred independent states. Towns had been razed, castles dismantled, villages burned, and the land ravaged, until poverty and famine actually drove some of the survivors to cannibalism. This cruel war is said to have put Germany back two hundred years "in character, in intelligence, and in morality," and from 1648 to 1748 Germany could justly be termed "neither holy, nor Roman, nor empire."

Taking advantage of this dreadful condition, Louis XIV secured possession of Strasburg in time of peace, and when the treaties of Nymweguen, Ryswick, and Utrecht ended the wars which he carried on in Holland, in the Palatinate, and all along the frontier, the Germans, shorn at every point, punningly called them "Nimweg, Reisweg, and Unrecht" (take away, tear away, and unright). Louis XIV, who put down the Protestants with a high hand in his own estates, secretly upheld them in Germany, and stirred up the Turks to besiege Vienna, which city was in imminent danger of falling into their hands when rescued by the Polish hero Sobieski. It is said that such enormous quantities of coffee were abandoned by the Turks on this occasion that the beverage first became popular in Germany, a popularity which it still maintains.

The German heroes of this epoch are "The Great Elector" (der grosse Kurfürst) of Brandenburg, and Prince Eugene "the noble knight" and idol of the army. When the War of Spanish Succession ended, the numerous German princes began to imitate Louis XIV,

and an epidemic of palace and town building broke out, which added such places as Mannheim and Carlsruhe to Germany's list of remarkable cities.

The Wars of the Polish and Austrian Successions and the Seven Years' War again involved Germany and Austria, and while France won Lorraine thereby, Austria, Prussia, and Russia divided Poland. Meantime, under the wise rule of the Great Elector, Prussia made such progress that the country became a kingdom in 1701, under his son's rule. Frederick the Great, grandson of the Great Elector, greatly enlarged his estates, winning undying renown by his warlike talents, which laid the foundation for the military supremacy of Prussia as long as he was at the helm.

His love of letters and friendship for Voltaire gave a stimulus to learning, so that under the reign of Joseph II (son of Maria Theresa), Germany could boast of Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller in dramatic art, Mozart, Glück, Haydn, and Beethoven in music, Humboldt in science, Kant in philosophy, Von Ranke in history, Richter in theology, and Hoffmann and Fouché in fiction. The French Revolution, the influx of émigrés, and the wars against the French Republic, were followed by the rule of Napoleon, who after the third coalition cleverly detached sixteen princes from the Holy Roman Empire to form the German Confederation. It was in 1806 that Francis II, last bearer of the august title of head of the Holy Roman Empire, laid it aside to assume that of Emperor of Austria, which is still borne by one of his successors. But when Napoleon arbitrarily tried to dispose of Tyrol at this time, he met with heroic resistance on the part of the mountaineers, led by the huntsman Hofer, who was executed in punishment for this patriotic rebellion.

During Napoleon's career Germans fought in the French army, and bore the brunt of some of his great wars. But after he had humiliated Prussia at Tilsit, and especially after his insolence at Dresden, just before the fatal Russian campaign, his influence in Germany waned.

The retreat from Moscow determined his German allies, one by one, to forsake his cause, and after beating him at Leipzig, they invaded France and compelled him to abdicate and retire to the island of Elba. When Napoleon reappeared in France, nine months later, the Germans and English — the first of the allies ready to oppose him — met him at Waterloo, where the conjunction of the armies of Wellington and Blücher resulted in a crushing defeat for Napoleon. Then the Congress of Vienna remodelled Europe, leaving Germany composed of thirty-nine independent states, of which Bavaria, Saxony, and Prussia were kingdoms. Although the rulers of all the states now promised constitutions and liberal government to their subjects, one and all soon tried to replace things on the old despotic footing, — an attempt which caused many an outburst of rebellion, for the French revolutions of 1830 and 1848 kept all the neighbouring countries in a ferment.

Prussia, least subject to these disturbances, and wisely ruled by a series of Fredericks and Williams, acquired Schleswig-Holstein in the Danish War (1864), still further increased its prestige by vanquishing Austria at Sadowa (1866), and, after the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871, Germany, united at last, chose old King William of Prussia as its head, hailing him "Emperor of Germany" in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles.

While each of the states composing the German Empire still has its own constitution and is nominally governed by its king, duke, or other ruler, the German emperor alone, with the Reichsrat, controls all foreign relations, the customs, the post, the army and navy, etc., decides for peace or war, and commands the whole German army, which is trained in the same way in all parts of the empire.

William died in 1888, and his promising son Frederick soon followed him to the tomb, leaving the government in the hands of his heir, William II, who so far has proved an able and energetic ruler.

We have sketchily followed the fortunes of Austria

until it finally separated from Germany in 1806, after having formed part of the Holy Roman Empire for about five hundred years. In 1809 Austria again came into collision with Napoleon, and after the crushing defeat of Wagram, was forced to submit to a humiliating treaty. In 1810 the Emperor Francis I had to give his daughter, Marie Louise, in marriage to his hated foe. This alliance, however, did not secure the permanent support which Napoleon expected, for he saw himself deprived of wife and son by the agency of his father-in-law, whom Metternich induced to join the coalition against him.

Francis I of Austria, whose reign extends from 1792 to 1835, saw many changes in Europe; his son, Ferdinand I, involved in sundry wars and revolutions, abdicated in 1848, and the crown then passed to his nephew, Francis Joseph, the present ruler, who has lived long enough to win the affections of some of his once rebellious subjects, to take an active part in sundry wars, and since 1867 to be head of the united Austro-Hungarian monarchy. In 1878, by the Treaty of Berlin, his realm was increased by the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which were once Turkish provinces.

## Chronological List of Emperors and Kings of Germany

### *Carolingian Dynasty. 800-911.*

800-814	Charlemagne.	877-887	Charles III the Fat.
814-840	Louis I the Pious.	887-899	Arnulf.
840-855	Lothaire I.	899-911	Louis the Child.
855-875	Louis II.	901-905	Louis III the Blind.
875-877	Charles II the Bald.		

### *Saxon Dynasty.*

911	Otho of Saxony (nominal).	973-983	Otto II.
911-918	Conrad of Franconia.	983-1002	Otto III.
919-936	Henry I the Fowler.	1002-1024	Henry II the Saint.
936-973	Otto I the Great.		

*Salic Dynasty.*

1024-1039	Conrad II.	1106-1125	Henry V.
1039-1056	Henry III.	1125-1137	Lothaire II the Saxon.
1056-1106	Henry IV.		

*House of Swabia (Hohenstaufen).*

1138-1152	Conrad III.	1198-1215	Otto IV.
1152-1190	Frederick I Barba- rossa.	1215-1250	Frederick II.
		1250-1254	Conrad IV.
1190-1197	Henry VI.	1254-1273	Interregnum.
1197-1208	Philip.		

*Rulers from Foreign Houses.*

1254-1256	William of Holland.	{ 1314-1347	Louis IV of Bavaria.
1256-1271	Richard of Cornwall and Alfonso of Castile.	{ 1314-1330	Frederick the Fair of Austria.
1272-1291	Rudolf I of Hapsburg.	1347-1378	Charles IV.
1292-1298	Adolphus of Nassau.	1378-1400	Wenceslaus.
1298-1308	Albert I of Austria.	1400-1410	Rupert of the Palati- nate.
1308-1313	Henry VII of Luxem- bourg.	1410-1437	Sigismund of Hungary.

*Dynasty of Austria (Hapsburg).*

1438-1439	Albert II.	1658-1705	Leopold I.
1440-1493	Frederick III.	1705-1711	Joseph I.
1493-1519	Maximilian I.	1711-1740	Charles VI.
1519-1558	Charles V.	1740-1780	Maria Theresa.
1558-1564	Ferdinand I.	1742-1745	Charles VII.
1564-1576	Maximilian II.	1745-1765	Francis I.
1576-1612	Rudolf II.	1765-1790	Joseph II.
1612-1619	Matthias.	1790-1792	Leopold II.
1619-1637	Ferdinand II.	1792-1806	Francis II.
1637-1657	Ferdinand III.	1806	End of Holy Roman Empire.

*Kings and Queens of Prussia.*

1701-1713	Frederick I and Sophie Charlotte of Hanover.	1797-1840	Frederick William III and Louise of Mecklen- burg.
1713-1740	Frederick William II and Sophie Dorothea of Hanover.	1840-1861	Frederick William IV and Elizabeth of Bavaria.
1740-1786	Frederick II the Great and Elizabeth Christine of Brunswick.	1861-1888	William I and Augusta of Baden.
1786-1797	Frederick William II and Frederika Louisa of Hesse Darmstadt.	1888	Frederick III and Victoria of England.
		1888-	William II and Victoria of Schleswig-Holstein.

*German Empire.*

1871-1888 William I.	1888- William II.
1888 Frederick III.	

*Chronology of Austria.*

1040 Austria receives present name. A duchy.	1740-1780 Maria Theresa.
1273 Rudolph of Hapsburg takes Austria from Bohemia. Archduke.	1741-1748 War of Spanish Succession.
1307 Revolt of Switzerland.	1742-1745 Charles VII.
1438 Albert II King of Hungary and Bohemia. Emperor.	1745-1765 Francis I.
1477 Austria annexes Burgundy by marriage.	1765-1790 Joseph II.
1496 Austria annexes Spain by marriage.	1790-1792 Leopold II.
1557 Charles V abdicates.	1792-1806 Francis II.
1618-1648 Austria vs. Germany in Thirty Years' War. Treaty of Westphalia.	1804-1835 Above assumes title of Francis I, Hereditary Emperor of Austria.
1658-1705 Leopold I.	1805-1809 French in Vienna. Austerlitz and Wagram.
1705-1711 Joseph I.	1810 Napoleon marries Marie Louise.
1711-1740 Charles VI.	1814-1815 Congress and Treaty of Vienna.
	1835-1848 Ferdinand.
	1848- Francis Joseph.

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## XIII

### TRAVEL IN GERMANY

If you take one of the Hamburg-American steamships, you are likely to have your first impression of Germany at Cuxhaven, at the mouth of the Elbe, and from this busy port to rush on by train to Hamburg, instead of waiting until the tide serves to float the big transatlantic steamer to its dock.

Before reaching Cuxhaven, however, you sail through what is known as Helgoland Bay, for it lies between that cliff-bound island and the mouth of the river. Those who have leisure to do so will find pleasure in visiting Helgoland Island and will marvel at the huge red and white streaked cliffs which form three of its rugged sides. Here, besides fine sea-air, and a picturesque population of Frisian lineage, tourists will find good surf-bathing, and may if circumstances favour them enjoy the grand spectacle of the phosphorescent waves dashing against the great rocks. There are several other islands, and fine lighthouses, in this great bay, which are also worthy of a visit if you have leisure to inspect everything.

Still, after admiring the harbour and the fine old castle of Cuxhaven, most travellers press on, as we have said, either to Hamburg, farther up stream, or cross the river to the mouth of the great northern ship canal between Kiel on the Baltic Sea and the estuary of the Elbe. This canal, which can be visited throughout its whole extent, runs through Holstein, famous for its cattle and pastures, and only comparatively recently annexed to the German Empire.

From Kiel — Germany's great naval station — railways run up to Schleswig and Flensburg, the former



already an important town in the days of Charlemagne, and the latter situated on a fine ford, which offers delightful glimpses of wooded hillsides and luxuriant pastures. Flensburg can also be reached by sea, for many small coasting-vessels thread their way in and out of the bays, or viks, whence the Vikings once sailed on predatory expeditions which kept Europe in a state of panic from the seventh to the eleventh centuries.

Both the east and west coast of Schleswig and Holstein are deeply indented, and the numerous large islands fringing the shore are inhabited by a population of fishermen and sailors whose hardihood and thrift are almost proverbial. These islands are besides great bathing-resorts, and during the summer season their beaches are dotted with hooded chairs and bathing-machines, which latter seem strange to Americans, who are in the habit of running from bath-house down to the waves in bathing-costume only. In most seashore resorts on the European coasts bathers step directly from their dressing-room into a little house on wheels, the horse drawing it is driven straight into the surf, where the bather plunges in, and after the bath re-enters the machine, and is driven back to the dressing-room, thus avoiding running the gauntlet of curious eyes in wet and clinging apparel.

From Kiel, also by sea or by rail, one can soon reach Lübeck, one of the three original "free ports" of Germany, and long the centre of the great Hanseatic League. Remains of its mediæval fortifications, its city hall with mural decoration, rich carvings, and the assembly room wherein votive model ships still depend from the ancient rafters, its cathedral, churches and museum, all offer matters of keen interest to tourist and student.

From thence we proceed by sea along the low Baltic coast,—or by land across the moors, marshes, sand wastes, and potato fields through Mecklenburg, where the principal centres, Wismar and Schwerin, will not detain us very long. Still, they contain attractive pic-

ture galleries, cathedrals, antiquities, and monuments, and the natives are an interesting study, especially for those who understand their dialect and can frequent the markets and village inns. Those who prefer a sea journey can sail from Kiel to Wismar, from Wismar to Rostock, and from Rostock to Stralsund, and thus have the chance to see something of the Baltic and of the North German coast, which, however, is often very sandy and flat. The most attractive part of the journey is in the sound running between Stralsund and the picturesque island of Rügen, now a great summer resort for aristocratic Germany, but formerly one of the principal shrines of the Scandinavian religion.

The fine mediæval market-place of Stralsund, the old houses occupied by rich ship-owners, the churches and monuments do not require long study. From Stralsund you can go by sea again through a long landlocked bay to Stettin, on the Oder, from which point many railroads facilitate the exploration of both Mecklenburgs inland, and of Pomerania. Next, by resuming the Baltic coasting-trip, one pauses again at Dantzic, on the Vistula, down which ships come heavily laden with the produce from the great wheat-fields of East and West Prussia, and of what was once the kingdom of Poland. The fortress of Dantzic, its fine mediæval features, and the numerous other reminders of its power and influence during the heyday of the Hanseatic League, cast a glamour over a busy centre, whose city hall, exchange, churches, monastery, and galleries would be worthy of detailed notice did space permit.

From Dantzic, by train you can easily reach Königsberg, famous for its reminiscences of the Teutonic Knights, its university, and museum of prehistoric antiquities, and royal palace, for this city was once the capital of Prussia and still retains much of its past importance. By train still — for the country is covered by a network of railways — you can visit Tilsit on the Niemen, where Napoleon had his famous interview with the Czar of Russia, and afterwards with the King

and Queen of Prussia, rudely refusing the favour for which Queen Louise begged so prettily. Then, on through the southern part of East Prussia with its many lakes; but, as the country is mostly flat farm-land, it is not particularly attractive to any save agricultural tourists, and people are therefore apt to pass rapidly through it, pausing scarcely anywhere, although each town has some specialty to press upon their notice.

By diverging southward, you gradually draw near the Austrian frontier, and the Sudetic Mountains, and the nearer you get to them the more picturesque the landscape. In this region Breslau is the largest centre, a city second only to Berlin. Its historical mementos, its fortifications, promenades, city hall, cathedral, monuments, museums, and churches are all of interest, and from there it is easy to plan a tour of exploration in Silesia, visiting many of the battlefields and places made famous during the Thirty Years' War and the campaigns of Frederick the Great.

From Breslau to Frankfort on the Oder, and from there to Berlin by railway, brings you to Germany's finest modern city, which ranks third among the capitals of Europe. In spite of its location on a sandy plain and of the severity of its winters, Berlin attracts many strangers, who sojourn there for the sake of the many advantages the city affords to students and pleasure-seekers of all kinds. Imperial court, diplomatic corps, the army, etc., all tend to make the city busy and gay, and by strolling along the Promenade Unter den Linden, you can often see the imperial family pass to and fro. In Berlin, besides the musical advantages offered by conservatory, opera house, concert halls, and the famous musicians who teach there, you can devote as much time as fancy prompts to the fine galleries, library, aquarium, cathedral, churches, monuments, and royal palace. Besides all the attractions the city affords and the study of the Berliner at home, with his dialect and peculiar accent, you can also look forward to an excursion to Charlottenburg, now one of the city sub-

urbs, where you can visit the porcelain manufactory, the royal palace, and especially the mausoleum, where Rausch's beautiful statue of Queen Louise produces an impression of ineffable peace. Another excursion to Potsdam, with its reminiscences of Frederick the Great, to the Park of Sans Souci, where the legendary windmill still stands, to the Charlottenhof, Marble Palace, Babelsberg, etc., will furnish amusements for sightseers for many a day, for all these places contain many treasures deserving inspection, and the tales told by those detailed to conduct strangers through these places are not devoid of interest.

From Berlin a railway runs almost in a direct line to Dresden, noted for its historical reminiscences, its art treasures, royal palace, — with treasure chamber or "Green Vault," — all its museums, and the fine opera house, where the best compositions are well and frequently given. Dresden also boasts of many beautiful drives, for it is picturesquely located on the Elbe, and has a fine background of mountains along the Austrian frontier, which is not distant at this point. After exploring all you care to see of the ancient capital of the kingdom of Saxony, "the cradle of roccoco art," and its environs, after lingering as long as possible in the section known as Saxon Switzerland, where quaint, interesting castles, wild ravines, wooded mountains, lakes, waterfalls, and all nature's attractions seem to unite to charm your senses, you will doubtless pause for a while at Chemnitz, and after admiring its antiquities and industries, will probably wend your way northward past Meissen, with its famous royal porcelain manufactory, to Leipzig, the musical centre of Germany, where students from all parts of the world assemble. It is also a great commercial centre, and contains art treasures which every one longs to behold. The attractions of the city itself are besides offset by those of the surrounding country, where there are a number of beer gardens, which the city folk frequent, and where fine bands discourse good music during the pleasant season.



## The Zwinger, Dresden

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Council Hall (Rathaus), Munich

From Leipzig, with all its historical associations, excursions can easily be made to quaint Halle, with its university, to Weimar, the home of Goethe, and to the various little principalities with Saxe as one of their compound names, all of which boast some palace, some antiquity, some art treasure, and where you can study local colour to your heart's content. In each of these small states there is a slight variation in dialect, costume, etc., which adds to the piquancy of exploring a section that strangers too often rush through but do not visit.

From these small principalities it is but a step to Bayreuth, in Franconia, where, by choosing your time, you may enjoy the experience of hearing Wagner's operas, given in the opera house built on purpose for them, and find yourself in the inspiring atmosphere of a genuine Wagner Music Festival. Here, too, you can visit the composer's house and grave, ere passing on to Nürnberg, whose well-known mediæval quaintness needs no extra mention. Dürer's house and pictures, memories of Hans Sachs, and of the Meistersingers, the old houses, quaint churches, and local industries furnish here subjects of interest for all tastes.

From Nürnberg, past many old villages and towns, to Ratisbon, then up or down the Danube, Lech, and Isar, passing through a fine section of country and stopping at Ingoldstadt, Augsburg, and Munich long enough to see and appreciate what they have to offer to strangers. The Munich art treasures and the fine frescos of the Pinacothek serve to call up visions of the romantic, mad King Louis of Bavaria, to whose artistic taste the city owes many of its attractions.

It is but a brief journey from Munich to Füssen, a mediæval town on the Lech, and the point whence tourists start to explore the wonderful Bavarian Highlands, where tales without end are told of the beloved King Louis, who built some of the fairy palaces of this region, where he sailed around the lakes personifying Lohengrin, flitted by night—a train of mounted torchbearers lighting the way for his swan-shaped sleigh—

along the winding roads, and ended his career by a tragic suicide in a fit of insanity. These stories are romantic in the extreme, and have been woven by the novelist Samarov into one of his most thrilling tales. Some time will doubtless be devoted to the various picturesque drives in this section of lakes, waterfalls, and torrents spanned by romantic-looking bridges, as well as to the wonderful castle of Hohenswangau, near the beautiful Alpee. Not far from this delightful castle rises mad King Louis' Neuschwanstein Castle, with its wonderful frescos illustrating the German legends, its glorious views, and its winter garden and stalactite grotto.

Bridle and foot paths lure strong members of a travelling party to many beautiful points inaccessible to those who are compelled to remain in carriages, but even these can behold in this region beauty enough to form delightful memories for the rest of their lives.

From Füssen or Munich tourists also visit the romantically located village of Oberammergau, where in consequence of a vow made in 1633 the peasants give a solemn representation of the Passion Play every decade. (The next performance will be in 1910.) Railroad facilities and the notoriety given by the press to this religious festivity have served to attract hosts of strangers, so that what was a beautiful remnant of the mediæval spirit of devotion threatens soon to become a purely theatrical and commercial affair. Those who cannot attend the grand performance of the Passion Play are somewhat indemnified by the intermediate performance, given also by the peasants, and which illustrates some phase of Biblical history.

All the Bavarian Highland region is so delightful that a whole summer spent there will not suffice to view all it has to offer, but the hurried tourist, beside the places already mentioned, will probably have time to inspect only a few of the romantic sheets of water, such as the Achen, Tegern, Traun, König and Chiem Lakes (Seen), with perchance the Frauen Insel, and the castle of Herrenchiemsee; but to wander on foot through this region





is delightful, for the wooded mountains and beautiful sheets of water afford charming views on all sides.

Following the frontier toward the west, you strike farther into the Bavarian Alps, where the Lech takes its source, and, by following the course of that river, come at last to Augsburg. Those who prefer, however, can push on still farther westward and joining the railway pass northward to visit Kempten and Memmingen, or by following the Iller from its junction with the Danube to its source they will enjoy a ramble through the southern part of Würtemberg, passing Sigmaringen in Hohenzollern, and thus reaching Baden and the Black Forest region, through which they can journey either by rail, carriage, or afoot with ever new pleasure.

From Sigmaringen it is also easy to push southward through Ravensburg, to the Lake of Constance, whose northern shore belongs to Germany. After exploring this lake region, and viewing the Rhine Falls at Schaffhausen, one can take the train, and by running in a northwesterly direction pass all through the Black Forest, finally reaching Strasburg on the other side of the Rhine.

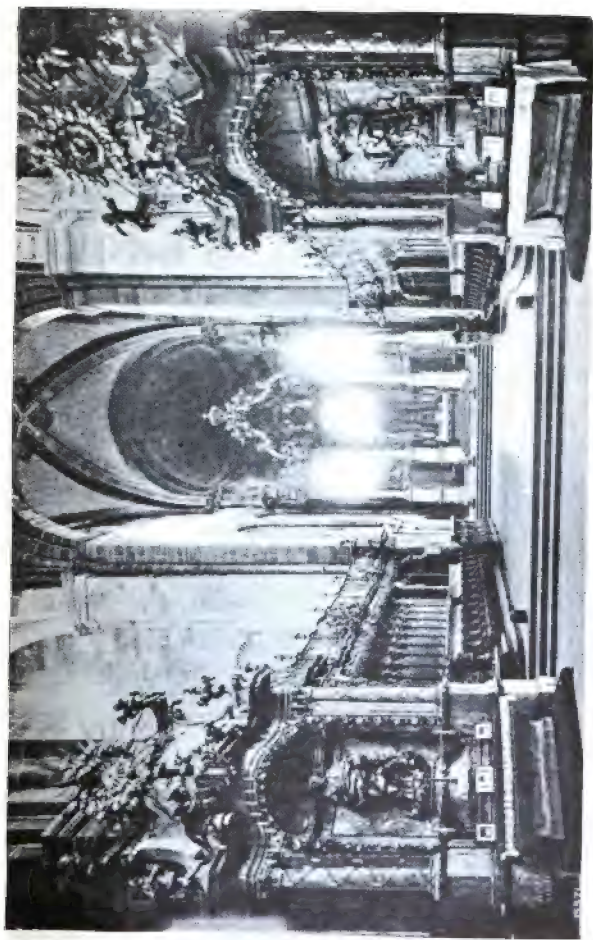
Many tourists, however, prefer to follow the Rhine to Basel, then cut straight across country to Fribourg (Baden), and from there go via Offenburg and Kehl to Baden Baden, the famous bathing-resort; Rastadt, where Napoleon held a conference; Karlsruhe, built in imitation of Versailles, and beautiful old Heidelberg on the Neckar, whose university, castle, and scenery always bewitch the beholder. As pleasant routes here are so plentiful as to cause considerable embarrassment, some travellers prefer to drift down the Rhine from Basel by barge, boat, or raft, while others elect to roam through Alsace, either on foot, by railway, or along the great Rhone-Rhine canal, which takes them through the picturesque manufacturing city of Mulhouse to Strasburg.

Here, after admiring the cathedral, the mechanical clock, the quaint houses with storks' nests on the chimneys, the bridge and all the local attractions, we can take another canal going directly westward, and passing

through Zabern, immortalised in Schiller's "Fridolin," we can cross the picturesque chain of the Vosges, coming out in France at Nancy. This canal is joined by others, and intersected by railways, which take you to whatever point you care to visit, including the principal battlefields of the late Franco-Prussian war, for it was in this region that all the decisive battles were fought.

Alsace-Lorraine is a charming country wherein to while away your summer months, provided you wish to study the natives, but, with the exception of Strasburg there are no large centres of sufficient interest to detain travellers long. The banks of the Moselle, in the north-western corner of Lorraine, afford specially charming views for canoeists, who will enjoy drifting down stream, thus traversing a whole section of Lorraine itself, following the boundary between Luxembourg and Germany for many a mile, and pausing at Trèves, where grand and beautiful Roman remains show that the city once held a far more important position than at the present day. From there, following every twist and turn of the beautiful river through a fertile country, past many castles, like Sonneck,—once the strongholds of the robber knights,—you come to Coblenz on the Rhine. The stretch of this river between Mannheim, where the Neckar joins the Rhine,—and Düsseldorf near the Dutch frontier, is the most romantic and winding, and is therefore most frequently visited by tourists, some of whom do it all in the course of one day's sail up or down stream, while others take it more leisurely, and therefore obtain more than a fleeting panoramic view of its beauty. The long stretch between Basel and Mannheim is far less interesting; so most travellers pause at Spire only long enough to visit the cathedral and imperial tombs, and, hurrying on by train, take a Rhine steamer at Mannheim or Mainz.

To visit Worms, with its interesting cathedral and memories of Luther and the famous Diet, with the fine monument commemorating both man and cause, one must leave the river for a brief time. From there, too, one can make an excursion on the other side of the river



Cathedral Choir, Worms

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Stuttgart, Germany  
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to Darmstadt, and farther north to Frankfort on the Main. Here the old Römersaal, where German candidates were hailed "King of the Romans" and thus became heads of the Holy Roman Empire, and Danneker's Ariadne are only two of the pleasant surprises which await you. In fact, the more familiar you become with all quarters of these old cities, the more interested you feel in their life, history, and curiosities, and the more reluctant to leave ere you have viewed all there is to behold.

All the Rhine country is most interesting, and the tourist who can leave the steamer to climb up to vineyards, castles, and other points of vantage, will enjoy fine views on all sides, which will more than repay him for any exertion which can be made. Familiarity with the history, poetry, and traditions connected with these places adds greatly to our understanding and enjoyment of them, and if we can linger long enough to become acquainted with the people, — boatmen, vinedressers, miners, peasants, innkeepers, drivers, etc., — we shall gain a fair insight into German life and character.

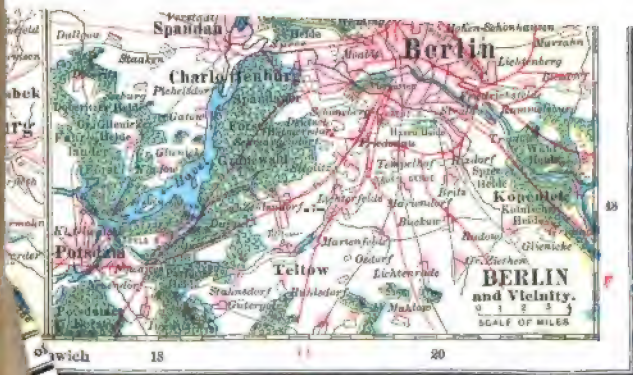
After pausing at Bonn to visit the university, and at Cologne to pay our respects to the cathedral, to the shrine of the Three Wise Men, and to the bones of St. Ursula and her Eleven Thousand Virgins, we loiter through the quaint streets and wend our way across the bridge of boats to the opposite shore, where we can marvel at the great fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, with all its ancient and modern devices for defense. From Cologne by rail to Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), the city founded by Charlemagne, who lies buried under the cathedral dome, is a very short journey, which, however, brings us very near to the boundary between Germany and Holland. A short sail or steamboat journey from Cologne to Düsseldorf, and we reach the place where we can best study early German art, for there is a noted collection of paintings by German masters in the local galleries.

While the Rhine below Cologne is comparatively devoid of interest, a leisurely journey along its now sluggish course is fraught with peace and rest, which is often welcome to over-weary tourists.

The central part of Germany is delightful to explore, for aside from the places which we have already mentioned, it is possible to pass from Nürnberg, by canal or rail through Furth to reach the charming little town of Bamberg, which modern life and progress have touched so lightly that it still seems like a bit of the middle ages. From this quaint city to Würzburg and thence to Schweinfurt, will enable you to see more of that section of the empire than is vouchsafed to most globe-trotters. Besides these points are on the way to either Fulda and Cassel, or to the Gothas, and Erfurt, whence we can find our way from Paderborn, where Wittekind surrendered to Charlemagne, to picturesque Münster of Anabaptist fame, Osnabrück, Minden, and then down the Weser to Bremen, another great Atlantic liner terminus. The long estuary of the Weser is navigable for large vessels only at high tide, so steamers generally land their passengers at Bremerhaven, from which they can proceed either to Bremen or across country to Altona and Hamburg. Others prefer to take the train directly southeastward to Hanover, in the heart of the country, and noted as the one place in the country where the purest German is spoken, not only by the cultured class, whose German is of course correct everywhere, but by the common people, who in many other places speak an almost unintelligible dialect.

From Hanover, with its memories of the Georges, whose descendants now rule England, one can visit any number of interesting centres, including Jena, famous for its university, and Wittenberg, where Luther nailed his theses to the church door, thus throwing down the gauntlet and challenging the Roman Catholic Church. Whether you study the peasants on the moorland, those who fight the sea inch by inch along the North Sea and Baltic coast, those who carve wood and raise canary-birds in the Black Forest, the inhabitants of the romantic Harz Mountains or of the grand Riesengebirge, or the miners and iron foundrymen of such great establishments as that of Krupp at Essen, you will find now everywhere





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the spirit of German patriotism,—the only thing hitherto lacking to secure and maintain the unification of the country. Everywhere you will hear the national song “Die Wacht am Rhein,” sung with heartfelt emphasis, and you will find that within recent years great strides have been made in educating the people, insuring a maintenance in old age to the working classes, and that the population is in general, industrious, thrifty, loyal, and contented.

### German Money Table

	Approximate values.	Abbreviations.	Metal.
2 pfennigs . . . . .	= $\frac{1}{2}$ ct.	2 p.	copper.
5 pfennigs . . . . .	= 1 ct.	5 p.	nickel.
10 pfennigs . . . . .	= $2\frac{1}{2}$ cts.	10 p.	nickel.
20 pfennigs . . . . .	= 5 cts.	20 p.	nickel.
50 pfennigs . . . . .	= 12 cts.	50 p.	silver.
1 mark (100 pfennigs) . . .	= 24 cts.	1 m.	silver.
2 marks . . . . .	= 48 cts.	2 m.	silver.
3 marks or 1 thaler . . . .	= 72 cts.	1 th.	silver.
5 marks . . . . .	= \$1.20	5 m.	silver.
10 marks . . . . .	= \$2.40	10 m.	gold.
20 marks . . . . .	= \$4.80	20 m.	gold.

Legal value of 1 mark or 100 pfennigs = 23.8 cts.

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## XIV

### TRAVEL IN AUSTRO-HUNGARY

ONE of the smallest of the conglomerate states which form this empire is Austria proper, while the largest is the former kingdom of Hungary. The various parts of this country differ greatly in scenery and climate, as well as in the race, language, customs, and religion of its inhabitants.

Whether you enter Tyrol from Germany, Switzerland, or Italy, you are sure to arrive at once in a section so famous for its wonderful views that it attracts almost as many visitors as Interlaken or Lucerne. From Italy you have the choice of sailing up Lake Garda to Riva and there joining the railway, of driving through the Dolomites, or of following the winding Adige between towering mountains to the very heart of the picturesque Tyrolean region. Those who have taken this journey often stop at Trent, a town supposed to have been founded by the Etruscans in prehistoric times, and famous still for its cathedral, museum, castle, and Capuchin monastery, as well as for its views, which are superb. The roads in this neighbourhood are delightful, many of them being cut through rocks, or winding along precipice-edges and by brawling streams.

By thus following the driving-roads or railroad to Botzen, which nestles among imposing mountains, you enjoy a wonderful view of the peculiar jagged Dolomite peaks, before going on to Meran, the town of fine arcades. After enjoying the view and castles in this section, tourists often drive on, through scenery of the grandest description, to Schlanders, and over the zigzag road on the Stelvio Pass, where you can behold the

Ortler in all its glory, to Trafoi and from there to Bormio in Switzerland. Or, turning northwards, pass Mals and the pretty sheets of water near there, and after visiting Ischl (in Tyrol), join the Inn, and wind along its valley either eastward to Innsbrück, or westward and then northward to Bregenz, on the Lake of Constance. As the roads throughout this region are in fine condition, driving is in favour, and thus the variety of places to visit is almost endless, but many are accessible for hurried travellers by railway also. For instance, the direct line from Bregenz to Innsbrück takes you past castles, nunneries, and pretty villages, along picturesque valleys, and plunges through the great Arlberg Tunnel, affording you a glimpse of some of the grandest scenery in the world, on its way between the Rhine and the Inn, which latter stream is only one of the many tributaries of the lordly Danube.

There is also a branch road running eastward from Franzensfeste, which leads to Toblach with its beautiful lake, and thence an ideal drive winds through the Ampezzertal, to Cortina, a place whence various delightful excursions can be made to points of scenic interest in the near neighbourhood, ere continuing one's journey down the valley and over the border into Italy. This is the real Dolomite region, the mountains being named after the geologist Dolomieu. From Toblach, also, the railway continues directly east, along the interesting valley of the Drau, joining another branch which comes from Venice and Trieste.

The largest centre and the town of greatest historical and artistic interest in Tyrol is undoubtedly Innsbrück, on the Inn, the capital of the province, charmingly situated in the midst of mountain scenery so beautiful that travellers dream of it ever after beholding its charms. The city, which is of considerable antiquity, boasts all manner of attractions besides the Franciscan Church, with Maximilian's monument, — whose imposing rows of bronze statues and beautiful marble bas-reliefs are so impressive, — and the golden-roofed house erected

by Count Frederick of "the empty pockets" to belie this unpleasant nickname. The quaint old houses decorated with outside paintings, the arcades, the museum, the gay costumes of the peasantry, all prove far more interesting than the throngs of tourists, whose routes often converge at this point, and who in the season almost overrun the small city.

From Innsbrück one can make pleasant excursions to neighbouring castles filled with art treasures, or, by ascending the Lanser Kopf, be rewarded by a magnificent view over the Inn valley to the rocky height where Maximilian almost lost his life, and erected a chapel as thank-offering for his miraculous rescue.

The farther one wanders from beaten tracks, and the more one enters into the real life and thought of the Tyrolean people, the more one admires the thrift, independence, and content of a race which produced Andreas Hofer, one of the world's great champions of liberty. Innsbrück can also be reached directly from Botzen by crossing the Brenner Pass, a railway journey taking you right over the watershed between the Adriatic and Black seas, affording you glimpses of cosy villages, picturesque towns, like Sterzing, cool lakes, grand mountains, glaciers, fashionable summer-resorts, which entice visitors from Vienna and elsewhere, and even battlefields famous in history.

From Innsbrück to Salzburg, by another winding, picturesque road, the train steams past castles which leisurely travellers enjoy visiting, and which add to the charms of a romantic landscape for even hurried globe-trotters. Sundry ascensions (some by rack and pinion railways), delightful sails over dark blue lakes (such as the Achensee), trips by omnibus, coach, or on horseback over the mountains to remote villages, and visits to the wonderful salt-mines of this region, furnish material for enjoyment during many a summer season, while the situation of Salzburg itself has never-ending charms for all lovers of nature. An old ecclesiastical centre, its cathedral, burial-ground, museum, and castle are a few

only of its principal attractions, which, however, are all outdone by its superb views.

In leaving Salzburg, always regretfully, strangers often take the railway eastward, and after plunging through tunnels and rock-cuttings, flashing past lovely sheets of mountain waters like the Mondsee, Eglisee, and Grotensee, come to the banks of a greenish-blue Albersee and reach Ischl, the central point of the justly renowned Salzkammergut region. Situated at the junction of the Traun and Ischl rivers, and famous for its mud, sulphur, and other baths, for its mineral waters and whey-cure establishments, this delightful spot is a fashionable resort, and its guests enjoy excursions to the Imperial Villa, the top of the Strinskegel, or to the salt-mines, which are illuminated once a week during the bathing-season and offer a fairy-like spectacle. From Ischl there are also excursions to any of the neighbouring lakes, one of which, the Traunsee, is particularly attractive. By taking the railway to Ebensee, and sailing from thence over the lake to Gmünden, you behold some lovely and some awe-inspiring scenery, including the Traun Falls, which tourists "shoot" in the salt-barges without running serious risks.

All the Salzkammergut region is so attractive that it is hard to tear one's self away; but Linz, the capital of Upper Austria, lying just beyond, on the Danube, beckons you on to admire its location, its fine bridge, museum, watch-tower, and the pilgrimage churches, whence glorious views can be descried, and where, especially in September, peasant life in holiday mood and costume can be duly studied.

On the Danube, higher up, and almost on the German frontier, you strike the town of Passau, whose name calls up the "Lament" of the Nibelungenlied. By embarking at Passau on one of the Danube steamers, and sailing from there down stream to Vienna, you gain the best idea of the rocky, wooded shores of this stream, with its scattered castles and villages, and if the day is fine, enjoy the "beautiful blue Danube" in its most



Bridge over the Moldau, Prague  
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Elizabeth Bridge and St. Charles' Church, Vienna

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attractive mood. With overcast skies, blue waters always turn gray, and, as there is not much traffic on the river and the points of interest do not crowd as closely as on the Rhine, the journey there affords less attractions, for even the whirlpool near the island of Wörth does not show off to advantage under such circumstances. Familiarity with the legends and tales concerning the castles and villages, monasteries, abbeys, and the all-pervading shrines, adds greatly to the romantic interest of a journey down the Danube, which, after leading you through Upper and Lower Austria and past the castle of Dürnberg, where the minstrel Blondel discovered Richard Cœur-de-Lion in captivity, ends at Vienna, "the imperial city" *par excellence*.

To describe all the attractions of the capital of Austro-Hungary much space would be required ; besides, every one has heard of the principal sights of the city, which include the rare picture galleries, the Imperial Palace, the church of St. Stephen with its catacombs, the statues and monuments adorning the squares, and the great Ringstrasse which now replaces the old fortifications. Then, too, come the University, House of Parliament, Palace of Justice, and last, but by no means least, the Opera, for the Viennese are pre-eminently music-loving people. When the art and other treasures of Vienna have been duly admired, when the parks and drives have been visited, there still remain excursions to suburban places of interest, such as Schönbrunn, with its memories of Napoleon, who sojourned there, and of his son, who died there, — "the Eagle and Eaglet" of poetic fame. An excursion to Eisgrub, one of the ninety-nine villas of Prince Lichtenstein, is also very enjoyable.

Vienna may be reached, on the way from Germany, by passing through Bohemia, a region whose name alone denotes many of its charms. Prague, its principal town, lies almost in the centre of the province, on the Moldau, — an affluent of the Elbe; — which crosses this whole province. Prague's famous cathedral, tower, Karlsbridge, picture gallery, museum, abbey, and

capitol (Hradschin) are all worthy of a visit, and the charming excursions and views in the neighbourhood deserve attention too.

In Bohemia you will also find the much frequented bathing-resorts of Teplitz and Karlsbad, whose medicinal properties have been known ever since the eighth and thirteenth centuries. Here throngs of patients congregate every year, and while water-drinkers promenade to and fro, or watch the bubbling springs, the hotel bands discourse fine music, which all enjoy.

Those who wander at will through "gypsy land" will be amply rewarded by the pretty places they will discover there; and the study of the natives — particularly for any one able to talk freely to them in their own language — has unending charms. The beautiful forest-covered region of the Böhmerwald, or Bohemian forest, along the southwestern frontier, the various mountain chains which form the western boundary, and the great Riesengebirge (Giant Mountains) on the northeast, are picturesque places, and those who can scale the heights obtain magnificent views in all directions. In fact, the Sudetic Mountains — as the whole chain is called — are justly celebrated for scenery and bracing air, just as Bohemia is world-renowned for the beautiful glassware manufactured by its people.

Between Bohemia, Prussia, Lower Austria, and Hungary we find Moravia, a province noted for strong religious tendencies, rich mines, and for sundry old abbeys and churches, as well as for the towns of Brünn and Olmütz, its chief centres, and the famous battlefield of Austerlitz, where three emperors contended for supremacy in 1805.

Wedge'd in between Austria, Hungary, Carniola, Carinthia, Tyrol, and Salzburg, we find the small province of Styria, with the picturesque town of Gratz as its centre. This is one of the cities which served as a bulwark against Turkish aggressions, and its Schossberg was strongly fortified on that account. There are many interesting things to be seen in this city and province,

some of which are along the railway line, while others are accessible only to leisurely travellers who patronise stagecoaches, or to the wealthy who enjoy driving-tours through a mountainous country, amid a highly interesting though somewhat simple and poor population.

The Styrian Alps are justly celebrated for their fine views, and attract beside many sportsmen, who also frequent various hunting-resorts in the Carnic Alps, south of Carniola. There the principal city is Klagenfurth, with interesting Roman and prehistoric antiquities, and the traditional stone upon which its dukes always sat to receive the homage of their vassals. From Carniola to Istria — which borders on the Adriatic — it is but a step, as it were ; still, the scenery varies greatly, for we now perceive a very winding and deeply indented coast bordered by a long chain of islands.

Trieste, the principal seaport of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, is located in this province, at the head of the Adriatic Sea. Famous already in Roman times, it has been a free city in its day, and is still a maritime centre of great importance. Like all ports, it boasts of a cosmopolitan population, the Italian element predominating, however, because it made part of Venetian territory for a long time. Its museum, cathedral, and shipping are all interesting, but its chief attraction seems to be the Castle of Miramar, the charmingly located home of Maximilian and Carlote, whose pathetic story lingers long in our memories.

From Trieste, it is possible to embark for many points of the globe, and, by taking one of the coast steamers, one can round the peninsula, stopping at Pola with its ruined temples, and at the falls of Kerka, before entering the bay of Quarnero, to reach Fiume, the principal seaport of Croatia, a part of Hungary. All along this coast, where the olive thrives and hence oil is plentiful, the sardine industry flourishes, and children in this section earn many a penny by gathering hazel nuts from hedgerows and thickets.

Fiume, one of the most thriving seaports of this coast, is

a town of great antiquity, whose fortunes have often varied, and which was annexed to Hungary only in 1779. Its picturesque ravine, its paper-mills and torpedo manufactories, are only less interesting than the Pilgrimage Church of Loreto, which attracts many devout worshippers, who come to add their votive offerings to the multitude which already deck the pillars of the quaint church.

Many other charming excursions by land or by sea can be made from this point, from which steamers ply to Zara, in the northern extremity of Dalmatia, a town picturesquely situated and well fortified. It offers a delightful climate, fine views, and pleasant walks, for Dalmatia, a mere strip of land between the Adriatic and the Dinaric Alps, has the double advantage of sea and mountain scenery. In fact, the inhabitants are said to speak only of east and west, as the other points of the compass have little meaning for them. Owing to poorly watered slopes, Dalmatia shows many barren places, but wherever moisture abounds, the land is wonderfully fertile, so the wine of Dalmatia is famous. The inhabitants are mostly fishermen or herdsmen, for up on the grassy slopes pasture great herds of sheep and goats. Thus, the picturesque costume of the peasants attracts many artists, while the game in the mountain region exercises a similar fascination upon sportsmen.

It is from Zara that one can best reach Spalatro, where Diocletian retired to his famous palace; and after admiring this fine specimen of Roman architecture, we take the only railway in Dalmatia to make an excursion inland. Then, resuming our sea journey, and threading our way through the countless islands which fringe the Dalmatian coast, we reach Ragusa, a strongly fortified and picturesque town nestling at the foot of a mountain. From this point experienced travellers work their way into Herzegovina, to visit Mostar, the quaint trading-centre, where they admire an old Roman bridge, a Greek-Oriental cathedral, a stalactite cave, and by haunting the bazaars, learn to know the characteristic ways and wares of the inhabitants.

Here, and even more advantageously at Sarajievo in Bosnia, one is able to secure all manner of curiosities, such as copper ware, filigree work, and fine rugs, provided one understands shopping in Turkish fashion, or has a courier versed in the wiles of Turkish merchants. In Sarajievo the attractions are a fine mosque, the gypsy camp, the sources of the Bosna, and endless excursions into the mountain-region, where remains of old strongholds, and ponderous fortifications of all kinds, plainly show that the country has long been a bone of contention between Christians and Turks.

A single railway line runs all through Herzegovina and Bosnia almost directly northward into Hungary, but as this road branches out to reach the principal towns on either side, it covers the main part of a country which is so little visited by strangers that it has as yet been little modified by contact with the outside world.

Those who wish to gain a fair idea of Hungary with the least possible amount of fatigue can best do so by embarking upon one of the river boats at Vienna, and sailing past castles, monasteries, ruins, and the island of Lobau, where Napoleon built a bridge to cross the Danube. The first stop is generally made at Pressburg, where Hungarian kings were crowned; from this spot you obtain a fine view of the Carpathian Mountains. Through a flat grazing country the Danube now winds past the ancient town of Komorn, the fortresses above Gran and Oben, and divides at Buda-Pesth, — really two cities, built on opposite banks of the stream, but now united to form the capital of the ancient kingdom of Hungary. The Academy, the treasures in the picture galleries, the Parliament Houses, Margaret's Island, the Suspension Bridge, royal palace, and the various baths where mineral water treatment is given to numerous health-seekers, are the principal features of this section, which, however, will repay long and intimate study, provided you have some knowledge of the language.

Although there is much to see in Hungary, the country is as yet not overrun by tourists, few of whom ever

venture beyond Buda-Pesth. Sportsmen, however, like to visit the Carpathians, where game still abounds, and thence often push on into Galicia, the province which Austria won when Poland was divided. Arriving in Galicia from Germany, Cracow, with its castle, cathedral, churches, and museum, is the first great centre we strike, and from the artificial mound erected in honour of Kosciuszko, we gain a fine view of the city in the plain, with snow-topped mountains beyond it. From this place it is customary to make an excursion to the Salt Mines of Wieliczka, which are illuminated at times for the benefit of tourists, and which form one of the most wonderful sights in the world. Hidden away here in the bosom of the earth, — whence seven hundred miners are continually extracting the sparkling rock salt, — there are halls and galleries, chapels, altars, and statues, all carved out of glittering salt, and here and there you come across one of the sixteen beautiful ponds which are encountered while making a horse-car tour of the mine.

From Cracow, a railway journey of about seven hours brings you to Lemberg, the next large centre, formerly the capital of Galicia, but now noted for its fountains, and an opera house where Polish plays are frequently given. Few travellers visit either Lemberg or Czernowitz, the third and last large town in this region, for these cities are not along well-travelled roads, neither do they offer sufficient inducements to beguile strangers far out of their way. In fact, as the western half of the country is by far the most picturesque, it will always claim the main part of a tourist's time, attention, and admiration.

## AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Austria-Hungary consists of the Austrian Empire and the Hungarian Kingdom. The provinces of Austria are : Lower Austria, Upper Austria, Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Küstenland, Tyrol and Vorarlberg, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Bukowina and Dalmatia. Capital, Vienna.

Liechtenstein forms a part of the Austrian Customs Union.

The Hungarian dominions include Hungary, Town of Fiume, Croatia, and Slavonia. Capital, Budapest.

Bosnia and Herzegovina are administered by the Austro-Hungarian Government.

Novibazar is under Austrian military occupation, though administered civilly by Turkey.

Railroads : 

SCALE OF MILES

0 50 100

Greenwich

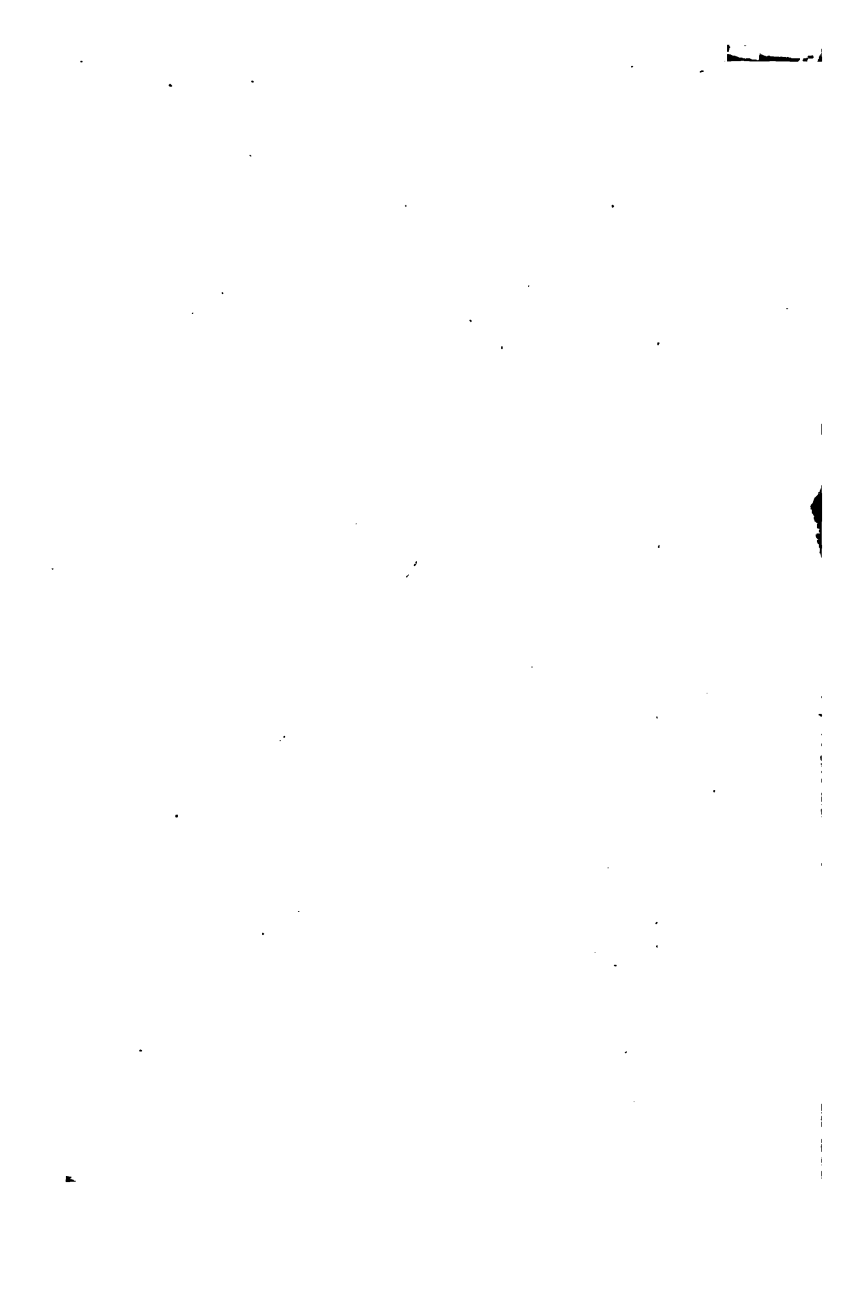
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## Austrian Money Table

	Approximate values.	Abbreviations.	Metal.
1 kreuzer or 2 hellers .	= $\frac{1}{2}$ ct.	1 k. 2 h.	copper.
2 kreuzer or 4 hellers .	= 1 ct.	2 k. 4 h.	copper.
5 kreuzer or 10 hellers .	= $2\frac{1}{2}$ cts.	4 k. 10 h.	copper.
10 kreuzer or 20 hellers .	= 5 cts.	10 k. 20 h.	nickel.
25 kreuzer or 50 hellers .	= 12 cts.	25 k. 50 h.	silver.
50 kreuzer or 1 krone .	= 24 cts.	50 k. 1 K.	silver.
100 kreuzer or 1 florin or 1 gulden . . . . .	= 45 cts.	1 fl. 1 G.	silver.
2 florins, 2 guldens, 4 krone . . . . .	= 90 cts.	2 fl., etc.	silver.

Legal value: 2 krone, 1 gulden, 1 florin (100 kreuzer), = 45.3 cts.

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## XV

### HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND

ALTHOUGH one of the smallest countries in the world, Switzerland is not only so picturesque that it is called "the playground of Europe," but so admirably governed that it well deserves the epithet "model republic." Its area, computed on a flat surface, is inconsiderable, but as its mountains tower to the sky, and as they are in most cases inhabited as far as vegetation extends, the country can boast of far larger superficies and greater population than would appear possible at first sight.

The romantic scenery, with its striking contrasts of ice and verdure, its inaccessible rocks, deep valleys, streams and lakes, the wonderful fertility of the soil, the great variety of flowers,—added to the fact that the country was probably inhabited more than three thousand years before Christ and has since often proved the battleground of nations, make it rich in traditions of the most varied character. Its legends and poetry are most entertaining and illuminating, and any good collection of them should by all means be read. As for the eventful history of this small country, it forms the theme of many good French, German, and other books, not to mention the numerous English works on that subject.

In comparatively recent times only, were traces discovered of the Lake Dwellers, a people of the Stone Age, whose weapons, pottery, and other remains are now most carefully treasured in the museums of Zürich, Neuchâtel, etc. Between 3000 and 100 B. C. the people in Switzerland passed through their stone, bronze, and iron ages, and it was only when they reached the latter stage that they came into contact with the Gauls and with the Romans. Some of the Swiss (called thus for conven-

ience' sake here, although the name can justly be applied to the inhabitants only after A. D. 1388) joined the Teutons and Cimbri when they threatened Italy, and were annihilated by the Romans in the two battles of Aix and Vercellæ, 102-1 B. C. Some fifty years later, the Helvetiæ (a Swiss tribe), preparing to migrate into Gaul, were met and checked by Cæsar, who not only forced them to return to the homes which they had forsaken, but established the first Roman post on the Lake of Geneva (at Nyon) to hold them in check.

No sooner had Helvetia (the classical name for Switzerland) become a Roman province, than Roman roads were built and Roman cult, culture, and agriculture spread rapidly throughout the country, although the western part was not immediately subdued.

By the middle of the third century there were several large and prosperous Roman towns in Switzerland, some of which were attacked and partially ruined by the Alemanni, whose destructive raids the Roman legions had difficulty in checking. In the third century Christianity first appeared in Switzerland, which now boasts of the Martyred Thebaïd Legion with its leader St. Maurice, as well as of Ursus and Victor of Soleure, and of Felix and Regula of Zürich as its local saints. Then, too, the principal cities, such as Geneva, became episcopal sees as well as cultured Roman centres, and the remains of baths, circuses, temples, etc., still testify to the degrees of culture attained. The country was, however, to receive a serious set-back through the barbarian invasions of the fourth and fifth centuries, during which Alemanni, Burgundians, Franks, Goths, and Langobardi conquered the country in turn, settling in various parts for a time, as suited their fancy. This influx of pagan barbarians not only swept away much of the Roman civilization, but also effaced most traces of Christianity, so that the whole region had to be converted again in the beginning of the seventh century, by the efforts of the Irish monks, Columbanus and Gallus.

Meantime the Franks, having overcome Burgundians,

Goths, and Langobardi, became masters of Switzerland which in the eighth and ninth centuries, under the reign of "good Queen Bertha" (according to French writers), and of her famous son Charlemagne, advanced rapidly in wealth and civilization, and many famous monasteries, convents, and schools were then founded.

The Treaty of Verdun, 814, divided Switzerland, the western half forming with Burgundy, Lorraine, and Provence a middle kingdom, while the remainder was given to the Emperor of Germany. To this early division is due the fact that French and German respectively are spoken in Southwestern and Northeastern Switzerland.

During the Roman and Frank rule, castles were first erected on the heights here and there, to serve as dwellings for local governors, and also as fortresses, from which a close watch could be kept on the barbarians' movements. These castles (many of which still exist) mark the beginning of feudalism in Switzerland; in many cases they also became the nucleus for the fortified cities which arose in the tenth century under the German Emperor Henry I.

In these cities trade, craft, and even art guilds were soon formed, and by assembling thus to gain private or business ends, the people little by little learned the force of the axiom "In union there is strength," and served an apprenticeship which was to prove of the greatest advantage to them later on, when the cities banded together to obtain their complete freedom.

At the death of Rudolf II, another emperor, his widow (a native of Switzerland, and the German "good Queen Bertha") acted as regent for her son, and by her wise rule not only increased the prosperity of the country, but encouraged letters, which derived lasting lustre from Ekkehard, the noted poet of St. Gall. During this epoch German Switzerland, more and more abandoned to the sway of local nobles and clergy, first began to feel the burden of their petty despotism.

In the middle of the eleventh century the German emperors, after some warfare, acquired Burgundy, Rhætia,

and Lombardy, so that French, German, and Italian Switzerland were united under the jurisdiction of the German or Holy Roman Empire. A brief period of peace and prosperity ensued, during which Zürich was often honoured by the imperial court. However, it was soon followed by the famous Guelph and Ghibelline (papal and imperial) feud, which was the cause of so much bloodshed.

The Zähringer Dukes, having become governors of Zürich, sided with the emperor, and waged war against the papal party. During the conflict many monasteries, castles, and towns were laid waste, but, on the whole, the hundred years of Zähringer rule in Switzerland were favourable to the growth and prosperity of the country. These nobles founded the cities of Fribourg and of Bern, the latter of which owes its name to a quaint legend, kept green in popular memory by the manifold representations of bears. It was while the Zähringers were at the helm, that Swiss nobles enlisted in the Crusades, and their adventures in the Holy Land gave rise to many romantic legends and tales.

There were at this time some twelve hundred petty sovereignties in Switzerland, among whom private feuds were all too frequent. It was then that each city and castle learned to defend itself, and then, too, that charters were granted, first to Uri and then to Schwyz. But, while the people in the German part of Switzerland were thus winning comparative independence, the Lords of Savoy, who absorbed a large part of the Zähringer possessions when that family became extinct, proceeded to annex all Southwestern Switzerland.

Savoy was not the only influential house in Switzerland at that epoch, for the House of Hapsburg was also rising, which was destined to become far more famous than all its Swiss rivals. We learn that Rudolf of Hapsburg was besieging Basel when he heard that he had been elected to the empire, and proceeded from thence to Aix-la-Chapelle to be crowned. But after his coronation he acquired much land in Switzerland, either by inheritance or through conquest, and came into open

conflict with the Bernese, whose city he beleaguered twice unsuccessfully.

In 1291, when this emperor died, and the struggle between Adolf of Nassau and Albert of Austria began, the men of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden first formed what is known as the "Everlasting League." To this epoch belongs the famous legend of "William Tell," with its thrilling episodes of Gessler's tyranny, and of the oath of the three Swiss on the Rütli (the Swiss Runnymede). While some of this tale is undoubtedly fiction, the remainder is based upon actual fact, for extant records prove that a Landsgemeinde, or popular assembly, such as is described in Schiller's drama of "William Tell," was held in Schwyz in 1294, a dozen years or so before the oath of the Rütli, 1307. Immediately after this compact of the Forest Cantons (Waldstääte), the tyrannical bailiffs of Austria were driven out of the country, and although Frederick, Duke of Austria, soon came with an army to subdue the rebels, he was sorely defeated at Morgarten (1315). During the next few years the charters of the Swiss were confirmed, the Hapsburgs had to surrender all jurisdiction over the land, retaining only their rights as private landowners. They nevertheless made several subsequent attempts to encroach upon the people's liberty, — attempts which called forth obstinate resistance and precipitated the revolt of Lucerne, which became the fourth member of the famous League.

Other towns also resisted Austria's tyranny, and in 1353, when the League admitted Zürich, Zug, Glarus, and Bern, it was duly recognised by the emperor as a "Union for the Preservation of the Public Peace."

Austria, however, persisted in her efforts to regain control in Switzerland, until after many lesser encounters and the bloody battles of Sempach (1386, where Arnold von Winkelried covered himself with glory), and Näfels (1388), she finally concluded a truce which lasted twenty years.

For the first time the independence of the Swiss Confederacy, now composed of eight members, was openly



**Buda-Pesth, Hungary**

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Executioner's Bridge, Nürnberg

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recognised by Austria, and from this epoch the country was commonly but not officially known as "Die Schweiz," or Switzerland. But, while the country was progressing politically, it had been sorely visited by the plague, and its population was so decimated that estates were left without tenants, cities without inhabitants, and often only one or two persons remained in the more remote villages.

Shortly after the famous Council held at Constance (1414), the emperor encouraged the Confederates and the Gray League of Southeast Switzerland to wage war against Austria, and a new quarrel arose, in which the French helped the Swiss win the bloody battle of St. Jacobs. This war and battle mark the beginning of a friendly alliance between France and Switzerland, whereby Swiss mercenaries could be hired to fight in the French army.

In 1460 the first printing-press was established at Basel, and the famous University founded, which attracted material and artistic culture to the city on the Rhine, where fine buildings and Holbein's paintings bear witness to its taste and wealth.

Meantime, Charles the Bold of Burgundy, by attempting to restore the old middle kingdom, roused the jealousy of Louis XI of France, who by clever manipulations contrived to defeat this purpose. The French monarch secretly urged the Swiss (irritated by the Duke of Burgundy's aggression and tyranny) to declare war. Under the leadership of Bern, the Confederation won sixty towns in Vaud, before fighting the decisive battles of Granson and Morat. There the Burgundians were sorely defeated, and lost vast treasures, which served to enrich the Swiss mountaineers "beyond the dreams of avarice."

The prowess of the Swiss on these memorable occasions won the admiration of all the civilized world, and soon after, when war broke out in Italy, both the French and the Italians eagerly hired Swiss mercenaries, in hopes of achieving similar triumphs. These hopes

were blasted, however, as the Swiss on either side flatly refused to bear arms against their own countrymen. Still, when the war came to an end, the Swiss had obtained new territory, which still forms part of their country.

Early in the sixteenth century Basel, Schaffhausen, and Appenzell also joined the Confederation, by this time composed of thirteen separate members, and in 1516, after the battle of Marignano (where Francis I triumphed over the Swiss mercenaries), a perpetual peace with France was concluded. This was speedily followed by the preaching of Zwingli, the great Swiss reformer, whose teachings were to kindle civil war in Switzerland, — a war which lasted from 1522 to 1531, when Zwingli died in battle. Although Zwingli was no longer there to preach reform, his theme, with variations, was taken up by his disciples, and especially by Calvin and Farel at Geneva, a city to be known in time as "the Protestant Rome." Here, also, the Eidgenossen (those bound together by an oath) were first termed Huguenots, a name which was to be applied in time to all French Protestants.

It was after Calvin had founded a Protestant University at Geneva that Carlo Borromeo started a rival institution at Milan, from whence he sent out Roman Catholic priests, who acted as missionaries in Switzerland, and not only won many converts, but formed the Borromean, or Golden League, which was to have great influence during the period of religious wars.

During the heroic struggle waged for freedom at Geneva, the patriot Bonnivard came into open conflict with the Duke of Savoy. Falling into his foe's hands, this Genevan was imprisoned first at Grolée and later on at Chillon, on the Lake of Geneva, where he languished until delivered by the allied Bernese and Genevese troops. When they burst into his dungeon, joyfully proclaiming, "Bonnivard, you are free!" the white-haired, emaciated patriot hoarsely inquired, "And Geneva?" rejoicing in his own release only when he heard "Geneva is free too!" But Geneva had not won

this freedom without a severe struggle with her former master the Duke of Savoy, who made a notorious attempt to seize the city by scaling its walls at night. His clever plan miscarried, as did a similar later attempt, the "Escalade" (December 21, 1602), which is now as famous and as noisily celebrated in that city as the "Gunpowder Plot" in London (November 5) or the "Taking of the Bastille" in Paris (July 14).

During the Thirty Years' War Switzerland suffered great hardships, but at the close of that period and by the Treaty of Westphalia her independence was recognised by the German Empire, although she had been practically free for many a year. Her troubles were not entirely ended, however, for religious difficulties and a peasant revolt were to cause much internal commotion in the state, which by that time had become a general refuge for all sects. But while Louis XIV banished his faithful Protestant subjects, he was only too glad to secure a treaty with those who received them, a treaty authorising him to hire all the Swiss mercenaries he needed. Still, as these men had won great renown as warriors, they demanded large wages, and once when Louvois complained that her mercenary troops cost France so dear that the road from Paris to Basel was, so to speak, paved with crown pieces, the Swiss representative bargaining with him hotly retorted, "Sir, you forget that with the Swiss blood spilt in the French service you might fill a canal from Basel to Paris!"

During the first half of the eighteenth century various conspiracies and revolts compelled some of the great cities to grant their citizens a more liberal government. Reforms were needed; Bern, for instance, had long been controlled by the three hundred and sixty original families, whose number had gradually diminished, until the city affairs were regulated by the votes and wishes of about fourscore men, whose rule had become extremely irksome to the majority of the citizens.

This was also a time of great unrest throughout Europe, a time when new ideas were seething and new

plans germinating on all sides. Voltaire, Gibbon, and Rousseau contributed their quota, and when the latter published his "Contrat Social," 1762, people deemed it so dangerous and subversive that they had it publicly burned. Still, persecution never had any effect in checking the spread of new ideas; and that same year the Helvetic Society was founded, to foster all aspirations for liberty. Although the meetings of this society were formally prohibited in 1788, the French Revolution no sooner broke out than it found active sympathisers on the other side of the Jura Mountains, where, however, the massacre of the Swiss Guards in the Tuileries caused the utmost grief and indignation. These brave warriors, whose patriotic words, "We are Swiss and the Swiss never surrender but with their lives!" are engraved upon every Swiss heart, and are commemorated by Thorwaldsen's lion at Lucerne, beneath which familiar Swiss names are duly enrolled.

In 1793 there was a reign of terror in Geneva, where political disturbances were all too frequent during the next few years. In fact, it was these popular dissensions which gave the French Republic the desired excuse to interfere in Swiss affairs. So her armies occupied the country, and proclaimed "The Helvetic Republic," divided into twenty-three cantons (1798). These high-handed proceedings on the part of France met with desperate opposition from some of the Swiss, but the remainder accepted all that was done without a murmur.

The following year, Switzerland became the scene of the Russo-Austrian struggle with France, and in 1802 the civil troubles determined Napoleon's Mediation Act, which abolished privileged classes and subject lands in Switzerland, and paved the way for ten years of peace and prosperity for the greater part of the country. The Switzerland of that epoch was not quite so large as that of to-day, for Neuchâtel had been given to Marshal Berthier, one of Napoleon's generals, and the Valais annexed to France. During this term of comparative

peace, letters and learning made rapid progress, and Pestalozzi and Fellenberg introduced educational reforms, which were in time to result in the admirable kindergarten, trade, and common school system, now in force throughout the country.

In 1813 a new Austro-Russian invasion of Switzerland, and new attempts to adjust the views of conflicting political parties, caused great disturbance, and it was only after the Vienna Congress, in 1815, that the Federal Pact was published, whereby the twenty-two separate cantons were to regulate their own local affairs, the Swiss Diet exercising sovereign rights only in national matters.

In 1830, in consequence of the Second French Revolution, twelve of the Swiss cantons revised their constitutions, and it was then that Switzerland became the asylum of political as well as of religious refugees. Religious disputes were, however, still rife, for seven Catholic cantons formed the Sonderbund, and announced a desire to secede from the rest of the Confederacy. Indeed, quarrels on this question became so bitter that they gave rise to what is known as the Sonderbund War, which ended only when Catholics and Protestants alike were granted complete religious freedom throughout the country.

In 1848, after the majority of the cantons had accepted the new constitution, Bern became the national capital, and German, French, and Italian were recognised as the national languages. In 1857 Neuchâtel, which had been both a member of the Swiss Confederacy and a vassal of Prussia, was definitely ceded by Prussia to the Swiss Republic, which then put an end to all foreign enlistments, and bravely maintained neutrality throughout the Italian (1859) and the Franco-Prussian wars (1870-1871).

Switzerland's Red Cross Society, and her international congresses for social science, workmen, and Postal Union, are only a very few of her inestimable contributions to the world's progress. As far as internal



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| A. D.   | A. D.  |
| 843 Alemannian rule in East Switzerland.  | 1245-1250 Switzerland involved in Guelf and Ghibelline feud. Risings in Waldstätte.  |
| 920 East Switzerland formally incorporated in Germany.  | 1254 Antique Confederation of Forest Cantons.  |
| 930 West Switzerland important part of Kingdom of Burgundy.   | 1255 Savoy governs Bern. Wealth of Hapsburg. Kyburg family. Influence in Switzerland.                                      |
| 937 "Good Queen Bertha" of Burgundy.  | 1267 Feud between Hapsburg and Savoy.  |
| 940 German influence begins in West Switzerland.  | 1273 Siege of Basel. Rudolf of Hapsburg, emperor.  |
| 950 Huns invade Switzerland. Defeated by Conrad of Burgundy.  | 1277 Rudolf holds all North Switzerland.   |
| 990 Ekkehard of St. Gall dies.  | 1288 Rudolf besieges Bern twice.   |
| 993 Switzerland prey to clergy and nobles.  | 1291 Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwald form Everlasting League. Conflict between Adolf of Nassau and Albert of Austria for crown. |
| 1016 Nobles of Burgundy resist Emperor Henry II.  | 1292 Zürich joins Albert.  |
| 1032 Conrad II wins battle of Morat over Burgundians. Annexes Western Switzerland to Germany.                 | 1294 First recorded Landsgemeinde.   |
| 1045 All Switzerland under German rule.   | 1298 Albert emperor. Austrian power in Switzerland.  |
| 1057 Rudolf rules Switzerland.  | 1307 Stauffacher, Fürst, Melchthal take oath on Rütli. Episode of Gessler and William Tell(?).                             |
| 1077 Switzerland involved in feud between Henry IV and Pope Gregory VII.                                      | 1308 Expulsion of Austrian balliffs. Murder of Albert.   |
| 1080 Rudolf slain in battle of Merseburg. Hohenstaufens and Zähringers contend for possession of Switzerland. | 1309 Henry VIII's charter to Uri, Schwyz and Unterwald. Quarrel for throne. Confederates side against Austria.             |
| 1090 Berthold II of Zähringen rules North Switzerland.  | 1315 Austria attacks Swiss. Defeated at Morgarten.   |
| 1114-1144 People of Schwyz dispute with monks of Einsiedeln.  | 1316 Austria's rights in Switzerland forfeited. Resistance. Feuds.   |
| 1127 Zähringers rule most of Switzerland.   | 1332 Lucerne joins Everlasting League.   |
| 1146 St. Bernard preaches Crusade at Zürich.  | 1336 Rise of craft-guild political influence.  |
| 1173 Rise of Hapsburg family.   | 1339 People <i>vs.</i> nobles at battle of Laupen.   |
| 1177 A Zähringer founds Freiburg.   | 1351 Zürich joins League.  |
| 1190 Fortification of cities.   | 1352 Zug and Glarus join League.   |
| 1191 A Zähringer founds Bern.   | 1353 Bern joins League. Eight old places united <i>vs.</i> Austria and Empire.   |
| 1218 End of house of Zähringers. Towns and nobles depend directly on emperor.                                 | 1355 Peace of Ratisbon.  |
| 1231 First Charter granted to Uri.  |  |
| 1240 Charter to Schwyz. Savoy gains part of Southwest Switzerland.  |  |

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- | A. D.     |   | A. D.     |  |
|-----------|---|-----------|--|
| 1361      | Empire recognises Confederation.  | 1512      | Swiss conquer Milan, drive French out of Italy. Land in reward.  |
| 1361-1385 | Local wars and feuds.   | 1513      | Appenzell admitted to Confederation. Novara.   |
| 1386      | Swiss vs. Austrians. Battle of Sempach. Arnold von Winkelried.                            | 1515      | Francis I defeats Swiss at Marignano.  |
| 1388      | Swiss vs. Austrians. Battle of Näfels.  | 1516      | Swiss League concludes perpetual peace with France. Hans Holbein at Basel.                               |
| 1389      | Truce with Austria.   | 1519      | Zwingli preaches reformation at Zürich.  |
| 1395      | Gray League formed in Grisons.  | 1524      | Zwingli's teachings. Monasteries dissolved. Clergy marry. Religious troubles.                            |
| 1402-1411 | Revolt of Appenzell and St. Gall against Abbot.   | 1527-1531 | Troubles between Catholics and Evangelicals. War and Peace of Kappel.                                    |
| 1414      | Council of Constance.   | 1532      | Farel preaches reformation in Geneva.  |
| 1436      | Toggenburg War.   | 1536      | Bern takes Vaud and Lausanne from Savoy. Calvin comes to Geneva.   |
| 1442      | Civil War in Zürich.  | 1538      | Calvin exiled from Geneva.   |
| 1443      | Zürich and French allies defeated at St. Jacob.   | 1541      | Return of Calvin to Geneva. His rule.  |
| 1452      | Swiss League concludes friendship treaty with France. Swiss mercenaries.                  | 1548      | Constance taken in War of Smalkalden.  |
| 1460      | University founded at Basel.  | 1553      | Servetus burned at stake by Calvin.  |
| 1467      | League makes friendship treaty with Burgundy.   | 1555      | Calvin's religious tyranny. Geneva "Protestant Rome."  |
| 1469      | Treaty infringed. Swiss incensed. Severity of Burgundian bailiffs.                        | 1559      | Geneva University founded.   |
| 1470      | Louis XI makes treaty with Swiss.   | 1564      | Calvin dies. De Bèze head of church. Duke of Savoy claims lands seized by Bern. Borromean League formed. |
| 1474      | Confederates declare war against Charles the Bold.  | 1565      | Catholic states join Pope Pius IV.   |
| 1476      | Battles of Granson and Morat. Burgundians defeated by Swiss. Towns gained by Confederacy. | 1566-1597 | Divisions. Zwinglites, Calvinists, Catholics.  |
| 1477      | The Swiss aid Lorraine, defeat Charles the Bold at Nancy. His death.                      | 1602      | "Escalade" of Geneva.  |
| 1478      | The Swiss defeat Milanese at Giornico.  | 1620-1639 | Massacre of Protestants in Valtellina. War in valley.  |
| 1481      | Compact of Stanz prevents disruption. Nicholas von der Flühe.                             | 1639      | Grisons' independence established.   |
| 1496      | Swiss oppose imperial taxation without representation.                                    | 1648      | Treaty of Westphalia. Switzerland's independence formally recognised.                                    |
| 1499      | Peace of Basel grants Swiss Confederation rank of allied State.                           | 1653      | Peasant War. League of Sarniswald against nobles.  |
| 1500      | Swiss mercenaries at Novara. Swiss gain Italian provinces.                                |           |  |
| 1501      | Basel and Schaffhausen join Confederation.  |           |  |





The Vaults of Chillon, Lake of Geneva

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Valley of the Rhône, Sion  
p. 188

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| <p>A. D.</p> <p>1654 Swiss intercede in favour of Waldenses.</p> <p>1656 Villmergen War. Catholics <i>vs.</i> Protestants.</p> <p>1663 Treaty with Louis XIV. Protestant mercenaries accepted.</p> <p>1668 French Protestants find refuge in Switzerland.</p> <p>1707-1789 Civil and religious feuds.</p> <p>1762 Helvetic society founded to foster aspirations for liberty. Rousseau at Geneva. Contrat Social.</p> <p>1790 Helvetic Club in Paris.</p> <p>1792 Porrentruy's revolt. Rauracian Republic. Swiss Guard massacred at Versailles (Monument, Lion of Lucerne).</p> <p>1793-1795 Reign of Terror in Geneva.</p> <p>1797 Valtelline part of Cisalpine Republic. La Harpe appeals to Directory to protect Vaud from Bern.</p> <p>1798 Invasion of French troops. Enter Chillon. Bern defeated. Revolution triumphs over Confederation. Helvetic Republic. Ochs' Constitution. Revolt headed by Reding.</p> <p>1799 Switzerland battlefield between Austria and Russia <i>vs.</i> France.</p> <p>1802-1803 Political strife. Bonaparte's interference.</p> <p>1803 Act of Mediation. Switzerland first used as official term.</p> <p>1806 Neuchâtel given to Marshal Berthier.</p> <p>1810 Valais a French Department. Swiss Benevolent Society. Pestalozzi's and Fellenberg's educational system.</p> <p>1813 Russians and Austrians in Switzerland undo Napoleon's work.</p> | <p>A. D.</p> <p>1814 The Long Diet.</p> <p>1815 Federal Pact. Vienna Congress decrees accepted. Neutrality of Switzerland.</p> <p>1817 Switzerland joins Holy Alliance.</p> <p>1830 Constitutional reforms in twelve Cantons.</p> <p>1832 Siebener Concordat. Sarner Bund.</p> <p>1834 Political refugees in Switzerland.</p> <p>1843-1847 The Sonderbund. Sonderbund war between Catholics and Protestants.</p> <p>1848 New Constitution. French, German, Italian national languages. Bern capital.</p> <p>1857 Neuchâtel ceded by Prussia to Switzerland.</p> <p>1859 Neutrality during Italian war.</p> <p>1860-1862 Difficulties with France about cession of Nice and Savoy.</p> <p>1865 International Social Congress.</p> <p>1867 International Workman's Congress.</p> <p>1871 French refugees during Franco-Prussian War. Alabama Commission at Geneva.</p> <p>1874 New constitution.</p> <p>1882 St. Gothard Railway opened.</p> <p>1884 International Copyright Conference.</p> <p>1890 Compulsory insurance against sickness and accident voted.</p> <p>1891 The "initiative" of 50,000 votes.</p> <p>1896 National Exhibition at Geneva.</p> <p>1897 Law for purchase of railways.</p> <p>1898 Simplon Tunnel begun. Empress Elizabeth assassinated at Geneva. Expulsion of anarchists.</p> <p>1901-1902 Socialistic movement.</p> |
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## XVI

### TRAVEL IN SWITZERLAND

A GOOD gate through which to enter the "playground of Europe" is the old town of Basel, on the Rhine, once a Roman camp, later a free city and a member of the Swiss Confederation since 1501. The Roman remains, and gateways pertaining to the old fortifications, the cathedral, cloister, and museums afford the tourist much to see and study. Nature too claims much attention, for the Rhine, the mountain views, and the surrounding country are all full of charm.

Many routes, each offering special inducements, lead thence farther into Switzerland. The traveller who takes his time will enjoy wandering on foot through the Münsterthal, but even from the railway one obtains lovely glimpses. Branching off toward Porrentruy or passing down the picturesque Val St. Imier and Val de Travers, one can explore the western slope of the Jura, reach the great centres of the watch-making industry at La Chaux-de-Fonds, and Le Locle, and join the great artery of travel which enters Switzerland from Central France, passing Pontarlier and the Doubs River, stealing along the Jura foothills through delightful valleys to come out on the banks of the Lake of Neuchâtel, at the town of the same name. Situated at the head of the lake, it commands the long stretch of blue waters, the green heights of the Jura, and toward the south the majestic chain of snow-covered Alps.

By taking one of the lake steamers, it is easy to explore all its banks, stopping off at points of particular interest. To visit Yverdon at the opposite end, and from there take a short excursion along the Orbe valley, shows you a delightfully cool and picturesque rural

region. By following the course of this small stream, one soon comes to the lake and valley of Joux, places little visited, but where good cheap board can be obtained in the farmhouses. From there, those who love climbing make excursions into the Jura, and, by crossing to the great railroads in the fertile canton of Vaud, glide down through rich pastures, vineyards which produce good wine in great quantities, picturesque villages, quaint towns, and coquettish castles, and reach the magnificent Lake of Geneva (or Lemman), striking either Morges, or Lausanne, or, by following the railway line along the water, Geneva itself, at the southwestern extremity of the lake.

To dwell upon the attractions of the lake or city of Geneva would be mere folly, for every one has heard of this charming crescent of blue waters, where the current of the Rhône can be distinctly traced from end to end. From Geneva, with all its attractions, — including Calvin's Church, Rousseau's Island, the quais, cathedral, museums, and university, — one can make numerous pleasant excursions, ascending the Petit and Grand Salève on donkey back, visiting Saconnex for the sake of the glorious view of the lake and Mt. Blanc, and making a pilgrimage to Voltaire's retreat at Ferney.

To row or sail on this fine lake is a delightful pastime, but tourists are often obliged to forego leisurely modes of locomotion and be content with the more or less crowded steamboats, which ply constantly to and fro, and enable you to make the whole tour of the lake, visiting Thonon on the south shore — which is mostly French — and landing at St. Gingolph, at the point where the Rhône enters the lake, before proceeding to Villeneuve, at the extreme eastern end of the long, sickle-like curve. Up the picturesque Rhône valley, either on foot, or by one of the two railway lines running on either side of the rushing stream, one passes picturesque villages and castles, before coming to the larger centres of Monthey and Bex on the east and west banks of the river. After an exploration of the charming Val d'Illeiez, with ascents



Oberhofen, Lake of Thun

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Lauterbrunnen, Peasant Costume

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of the gleaming heights of the Dent du Midi and neighbouring passes, if you are an Alpine climber, you will doubtless visit St. Maurice, hallowed by the martyrdom of the Theban Legion, and celebrated for its ancient abbey, its historical relics, its stalactite cavern, and the warm baths which attract many patients.

A delightful trip will take you from St. Maurice, past the Pissevache waterfall, and through the Gorges du Trient to Martigny, at the crook of the Rhône, and thence, perchance over the wonderful Mer de Glace, to the famous Mt. Blanc, the "king of mountains." Those equal to long tramps afoot will be more than repaid if instead of approaching Chamounix by the usual routes, they allow the full splendour of the Mt. Blanc range to burst upon them suddenly from the top of the opposite ridge at the Col du Brévent, from whence it seems almost possible to toss a stone into the village and valley of Chamounix, five thousand feet below.

Every step of the way along the Rhône valley is fraught with delight, for the views are beyond all powers of description, and constantly attract admiring crowds from all parts of the world. The contrast between the blue waters of the lakes and river, the foaming torrents, misty waterfalls, rugged rocks of every hue, green meadows, rich fields, wooded foothills, pine-clad mountains, and, towering above all, the glittering, snow-topped glaciers, make one wonder whether heaven itself can offer a more magnificent prospect.

The road which ultimately leads to Chamounix and the glorious Mt. Blanc also branches off toward the southeast, and from Orsières passes either through the romantic valley of the Dranse, or, by a road farther west, over the Great St. Bernard Pass, with all its pathetic and historical memories, its monastery, famous dogs, and, last but by no means least, a series of fine views which every turn of the winding road affords.

From Martigny, also, one can track the Rhône to its very source, as it were, by following a magnificent road along the valley formed by the Bernese Alps on the

north and the Valais Alps on the south. This road, much frequented by travellers, leads past any number of small but interesting centres, — not the least among which is Sion. From here, if you can spare time, excursions may be made to the heights on either side, where the life of herdsmen, villagers, and mountaineers can be seen in all its picturesque simplicity.

At Visp, road and railway branch off toward the south, and running up the gorge formed by the Visp — which falls about 3000 feet in 22 miles — you behold a series of beautiful cascades. The railway ends near Zermatt, the place whence tourists explore the Gôrner glacier, the Breithorn, Mt. Cervin, and even “that toughest proposition in the Alps” the Matterhorn! Many of these points can be visited only with guides, who entertain travellers with stories of the various attempts to scale the Matterhorn, and of the terrible accidents which have occurred in the course of these ascensions.

After visiting this most romantic region and admiring the glorious views on every side, — views which one never again can forget, — the traveller reluctantly retraces his steps down the valley again to Visp, and from there northeast, up the Rhône valley to Brieg, long the terminus of the railway, but now the point where the road branches off to the Simplon Tunnel.

From Brieg, the coach road continues up the valley of the brawling Rhône past the Aletsch Glacier and the Rhône Glacier, and then runs on over the Furka Pass, the divide between the Rhône and Rhine watersheds. From this point one follows, in thought at least, the two great streams in their many windings, past the principal points of interest which they touch, to their respective terminal points in the Mediterranean and North seas.

From Villeneuve, on Lake Geneva, go either by boat or train to the romantic Castle of Chillon, which Bonnivard’s patriotism and Byron’s poetry have combined to immortalise. There one gazes in wonder at the damp vaults, where on stormy days the sound of the waves beating against the outer wall fills your heart

with nameless dread. From Chillon proceed to Glion, whence a fine tramway runs through a charming country, whose climate is so mild that consumptives often spend the fall and winter in one of the many pleasant boarding-places to be found in this section.

The lovely small towns of Clarens, Vernex, Glion, and Montreux almost touch each other, so that it is difficult for strangers to distinguish where one ends and the next begins. But, from all these points delightful excursions can be made on the lake or farther inland by train and cable railway, ascending slopes whence magnificent views can be obtained. Besides, from nearly all the points already mentioned along the lake, there are picturesque valleys to explore or heights to climb, such as Grammont, the Cornettes de Bise, Dent de Jaman, etc. Montreux, Vevey, and Lausanne are all beautifully located on the northern shore, and therefore command magnificent views of the lake, Mt. Blanc, and the Dent du Midi in all their immaculate splendour.

The scenery in Switzerland is so wonderful that the very interesting cities and villages, the romantic castles, and picturesque peasants are generally considered merely the necessary accessories of the landscape, and receive less attention than would otherwise be vouchsafed to their charming characteristics. Many of the cities, like Geneva, Basel, and Lausanne, are of great antiquity, and all boast some interesting building, collection of antiquities, or picture-gallery, which deserves any attention which can be spared from nature's wonders.

From Lausanne sundry railway lines lead northward, one going to Yverdun, another past Payerne, famous for its memories of good Queen Bertha, and the lake and town of Morat, where a noted battle was fought, while a third runs through the picturesque canton of Fribourg, to the small mediæval town of Romont, perched up on a hill, whose walls, watch-towers, castle, and Gothic church are quite fascinating.

From there, by stage or train to Bulle, in the heart of rural Fribourg, whence you can visit many remote vil-

lages, where fine views, good air, and cheap board await any one conversant with the language and sufficiently adaptive to accommodate himself to his surroundings. Those who prefer to run straight on to Fribourg (city) itself behold a superb suspension bridge, and Gothic church, containing one of the finest organs in Europe. It is played twice a day in summer for the benefit of tourists passing through the town, and any one desirous of hearing its wonderful notes can have it played for his benefit by paying a stipulated but not at all exorbitant sum.

From Fribourg the train runs through some of the finest agricultural section in Switzerland to Bern, capital of the country, — an ancient city, of which the oldest part is situated on a sort of peninsula almost encircled by the swift-flowing Aar. This stream is now spanned by several fine bridges, and its ancient city hall, modern parliament houses, mechanical clock, and beautiful cathedral, with the adjoining platform whence a marvellous view can be enjoyed, are all eagerly visited, as is the bear-pit, where there are descendants of the traditional animal whose capture settled the name of the city. Bern is also easily reached from Basel, stopping by the way at the picturesque towns of Soleure, on the Aar, and Bienne, on the lake of the same name, or coming down by way of Burgdorf, perched on a wooded height.

The view from Bern of the whole range of Bernese Alps proves so enticing to most travellers that they hurry eagerly on to Thun, at the head of the lake of the same name, where, after an always too brief sojourn, embarking upon one of the lake steamers, they enjoy glimpses of Oberhofen, Spiez, Merligen, Beatenberg, etc., before reaching Interlaken, the Swiss goal of all tourists, and the place whence a superb view of the Jungfrau can be obtained. Besides, it is the point whence a railway starts for Grindelwald, in the heart of the ice mountains, running close by the torrent-like Lütchine, along a beautiful wild ravine. This railway branches off, and thus enables

travellers to reach Lauterbrunnen and the Wengernalp, Mönch and Eiger. Before long it is to be connected with a tunnel, piercing to the very centre of the Jungfrau, whence an elevator will bear tourists safely to the summit, which so few persons have ever reached.

The great glaciers, the crevasses, the fields of snow, the thundering avalanches, and the mist-like waterfalls are all fascinating. But the most charming sight in Switzerland, and one which every one can enjoy, is the "Alpine Glow," which shows the snowy chain of peaks flushing rosy red at sunset, until they seem to pulsate with life; then, while those long accustomed to the matchless sight watch it in breathless rapture, gray shadows creep up the mountain, life seems to ebb from the roseate mass, and the last flicker of brightness dies out at the very tips of the peaks, which present the cold, awe-inspiring, peaceful look of lifeless giants before night envelops them in her dark mantle.

Sunset, sunrise, and moonlight on the Alps show the glaciers and peaks to best advantage, although they are indescribably grand and beautiful at all times. Even in winter, their majesty is undiminished, although, of course, travellers then miss the striking contrast of green mountains and pastures running to the very edge of the eternal snows. They also miss the awe-inspiring sight and sound of the thundering avalanches, which are far more frequent when the hot summer sun detaches great masses of ice which fall thousands of feet, sometimes with crushing weight and force, though at other times the pulverised snow merely forms a cloud of dazzling crystals, making the avalanche resemble a waterfall with its flying spray.

In summer, when the thaw is great, there are places where guides caution travellers not to raise their voices, lest the vibration caused by a shout, or even by loud talking or laughter, should start an avalanche which would bury them, or other innocent people, scores of feet beneath its cold mass.

One of the most delightful experiences of these re-

gions consists in observing the variety, delicacy, and beauty of the Alpine flora, some flowers growing so near the glaciers that one petal actually touches the ice and is therefore blighted while the rest remain perfect. These wild flowers clothe meadows, upland pastures, mountain ridges, and rock-crannies with a network of beauty, thus affording delight to all who study or even merely admire flowers.

It is in the upland pastures, which the natives term Alps, reserving the name of Snow Alps for the snow-topped peaks, that one can study the mode of life of shepherds and dairy men, and watch them as they tend their flocks, carry the milk in wooden receptacles down to the hotels, whither they also take the butter and cheese they manufacture, while their children dispose of baskets full of tiny strawberries whose perfume and flavour are particularly fine, or bunches of rare flowers, few of which are strongly scented.

Where cows cannot pasture, sheep and goats scramble about, and when grass grows on ledges inaccessible to cattle of any kind, men or women are lowered down by means of ropes, to cut, dry, and gather in bags the precious fodder for their live-stock. Besides, many people keep bees, whose honey, collected from the wild flowers, has a peculiar and most delightful flavour and is one of the many products of the region.

It is the industry and thrift of the lower classes which most impress the traveller, who, by the way, will find in most parts of Europe that every dry twig and leaf is picked up to be used either as fuel or as bedding for cattle, so that even extensive forests often have the tidy, well-swept look of a city park.

After you have lingered as long as your itinerary permits amid the beautiful sights and scenes of the Bernese Oberland, a sail along the Lake of Brienz will enable you to admire the pretty places along its banks, and to visit the famous falls of the Giessbach, and see the mountain torrents which thunder down on all sides at Meiringen. From this point you may either drive or walk

over the Grimsel Pass; or go by rail, or preferably on foot, over the Brünig Pass, and gaze from railway windows, if you cannot linger, at the beautiful lakes you perceive on either side of the way, and the green heights which hedge in the picturesque Melchthal. This road will take you to Stanz, where you can behold the Winkelried monument, and past the glorious Pilatus (which you can ascend by cog-railway), thus affording you many glimpses of the Lake of the Four Cantons ere you stop at Lucerne.

This is, like Interlaken, another of the "star" places which no one privileged to set foot in Switzerland cares to miss, and as it is a much visited centre, there are many points of interest to view in the city itself, as in almost every inch of its neighbourhood. The old Roman lighthouse (Lucerna), to which the city owes its name, the ancient wooden bridges with quaint paintings hanging from every spandrel, Thorwaldsen's lion hewn in the rock, the pot-holes formed by the action of the glaciers in the ice age, all deserve some attention, for they are *the* sights of the place. Those who have the leisure to do more will be glad to explore the less frequented regions and shops, in many of which they will find exquisite Swiss carvings, made by the peasants during the long cold winter, objects of rock crystal found by professional crystal-hunters, and various curios formed of the horns, hoofs, or pelt of the chamois-deer, which, though rare now, are still found in some parts of the mountains, where daring huntsmen follow them to almost inaccessible places.

Lucerne, which can be reached directly from Basel (the train passing through a most interesting region), is a fine point of departure for all manner of excursions by land and water. Most people start from there to ascend Mt. Pilatus, or even the Rigi, on whose summit it is customary to spend the night, if possible, so as to observe the wonderful light effects at sunset, and more particularly at dawn and sunrise. If favoured by a clear day, the sight is too wonderful ever to be forgotten, and if

the weather is unfavourable, even the sea of clouds at one's feet is often impressive. From the Rigi, which can be reached by rail from sundry points, one can visit Küsnacht, and by walking or by taking a carriage or stage along the Hohlegass, visit the chapel erected on the traditional spot where Tell slew Gessler. From there a short drive brings you to picturesque Immensee on the Lake of Zug, a smaller, but also beautiful sheet of blue waters. Here, too, steamers ply back and forth, enabling you to make a tour of the lake, landing at several points of considerable although not paramount interest.

From beautiful Vitznau, the terminus of one of the Rigi railways, it is also possible to resume explorations of the Lake of the Four Cantons, admiring every turn, and pausing if possible at all points of interest, such as the rock bearing an inscription in honour of Schiller, whose tragedy of "William Tell" clothes the whole region with romantic interest. Then there is Tell's Chapel, with its queer pictures, built on the flat rock upon which the hero sprang when he effected his escape from the boat in the tempest, the wooded heights where he vanished, and the Rütli, or plain where the famous "Swiss Oath" was taken to shake off the Austrian yoke. Then, following the lake to its southern end, we come to Flüelen, so picturesquely located, going thence by rail or on foot to Altorf, where Tell shot the apple from his son's head. Not far from there, in the picturesque Schächenthal, Tell had his hut; and if you care to see the Swiss peasant at home you can explore this valley or that of the Muota or Maderaner from end to end. By crossing afoot either the Kinsig, Klausen, Clariden, Kreuzi, or Oberalp passes, you will reach either the Glarus or Grisons cantons, where you will come down, at last, into the valleys of the Linth or of the Rhine.

From Flüelen, also, you can make a driving tour of the Lake of the Four Cantons, passing along a road often hewn in the rock, and affording through its arch-like openings delightful glimpses of lake, green mountains,





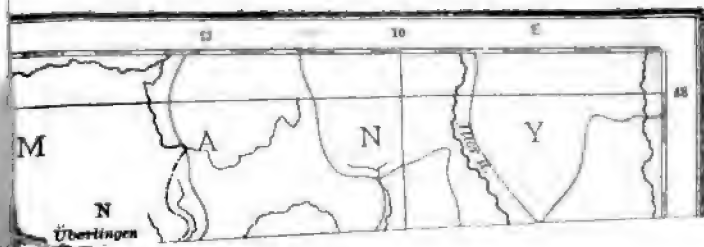
General View, Lake of Lugano

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All this region is picturesque in the extreme, but travellers must be referred to detailed guide books for the many points of interest which they can visit by the way. Many people also enjoy excursions into Glarus, where so much green cheese is made that the very high-ways are redolent of it. Others will prefer to follow the railway, still up the valley, stopping at Tamins, Pfeffers, and Ragatz, to enjoy the wonderful gorges, as well as the thermal baths, which attract so many sufferers. Still others will turn southward to visit Davos, a place where many consumptives spend the winter in the cold, dry air, while enjoying to the full the local amusements, such as skating, tobogganing, skeeing, etc. This resort is, however, wellnigh deserted during the summer months; so most tourists pass quickly on to Sargans, where one branch of the railway keeps on along the Rhine, while the other veers off toward the Wallensee, whence it is, after all, but a very short journey to Zürich, for the trip can be made partly by steamer, taking the train only between the two lakes.

By following the Rhine in its devious course, we skirt the edges of the picturesque Canton of Appenzell, and come out on Lake Constance, which we can view either from the shore line of railway, or by taking one of the boats, which, by touching at sundry points, enable you to see all you wish of its Swiss and German banks. After making a side excursion to St. Gall, — famous for its monastery and embroideries, — we are likely to pause long enough at Constance to visit all its attractions, and make excursions to the Falls of the Rhine, and the Castles of Laufen and Woerth on either side of the cascade, which, when the ice melts in the mountains, pours an immense volume of water over the rocky barrier, with a roar like thunder.

From the Rhine Falls, and picturesque Schaffhausen, you can take a run southward, by train, through a region where there are many quaint towns and villages, some of which still seem like bits of the middle ages. These places are not large enough, and do not offer sufficiently





marked attractions, to detain long a vacation tourist bent on larger game, but, if you wish to study Swiss life and local colour, you will find any amount of it away from the beaten tracks.

According to the region which you elect to explore, a knowledge of French, German, or Italian will prove indispensable, for these three languages are officially spoken in this country, which occupies but a small portion of the map of Europe, but is of fascinating interest. A good relief map of this whole section helps to give a fair idea of the country, which Mark Twain humourously described as looking from the top of the Rigi like a huge crumpled lettuce leaf strewn with turquoises.

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## XVII

### HISTORY OF ITALY FROM 1500 TO DATE

PREVIOUS to the sixteenth century, when this sketch begins, Italy, probably first inhabited by Greek colonists, saw the rise of many towns now famous. Then came Rome, first under Monarchic and then under Republican rule, which gradually extended its sway, so that when the Empire was proclaimed, it included far more than the Italian peninsula.

The division of the Empire into East and West marks the first decided step on the path of disintegration, but until the fall of the Western Empire drew near, all Italy was governed by Rome, and it was only when the barbarian invasions took place that it learned to know other masters. Still, the rule of Odoacer and Theodoric, and the Lombard occupation of the northern part of the country, nevertheless infused new blood into a degenerate race. The contest between the new-comers and the Emperors of the East, the rise of Christianity, the renewal of the Western Empire under Charlemagne, the gradual development of free cities under his successors, have all been touched up cursorily in the previous sketches on Roman History and in that of the Transition Period.

During this time feuds occurred not only between pope and emperor (Guelf and Ghibelline), but also between rival lords and cities, until the peninsula split up into kaleidoscopic fragments, which changed hands and form with startling frequency. Still, the wheels of progress moved on, so that by the time the Renaissance

begins, we find in North Italy a group of free cities with Milan at their head ; Venice, Pisa, and Genoa rival maritime republics ; Florence under the wealthy Medici ; Rome and the church estates ruled by the Pope ; and the southern part — the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies — claimed alike by France and Spain.

The rivalry of these two nations makes Italy a battlefield, and all the woes so eloquently predicted by Savonarola before his death at the stake come to pass, — the just punishment for the corruption in church and state, which was contemporaneous with the revival of science and letters, and the full fruition of art as exhibited by the works of the great Italian architects, painters, and sculptors. This was also the epoch when Julius II (one of the Medici Popes) ordered the tombs for which Michael Angelo carved his finest statues, had the Sistine Chapel decorated by frescos, began St. Peter's Cathedral, and the Vatican Museum, where were placed the Apollo Belvedere and the Laocoön, both rescued from the ruins of the Baths of Titus.

It was the cost of all these improvements which prompted the sale of indulgences, thus precipitating Luther's protest and the Reformation. Two years after Luther's first denunciation of the corruption in the church, Charles V, having already inherited Spain from his mother, and the Netherlands from his father, became not only Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, but the opponent of Francis I, who also claimed Milan and Naples. In the battle of Pavia, Charles V defeated this rival, thus asserting his mastery over Italy, where in 1527 a French traitor besieged and sacked Rome at the head of Imperial troops.

The French having been driven from the country, Italy assumed a new aspect. Both Florence and Genoa again became republics, but while the former soon beheld the return of the Medici, with the title of Grand Duke, the latter remained a Republic until the French Revolution. The example of the first Medici, who began the embellishment of Florence, was nobly followed in that



respect by their successors, one of whom, in 1580, built the gallery connecting the Uffizi and Pitti palaces, the famous Loggia dei Lanzi. The Pope, whose vacillation drove Henry VIII from the position of "Defender of the Faith" to that of "Supreme Head of the Church of England," was duly followed by the Gregory of Calendar reform fame, who persecuted Bruno, and ordered the execution of Beatrice Cenci, whose haunting gaze one cannot forget.

Meantime, up in the mountains, a power had slowly been rising and developing. It seems that in the eleventh century the Duke of Burgundy had given Savoy to a German lord. By marriage, inheritance, and conquest, his family gradually extended its possessions to the sea, and the emperor Sigismund bestowed the title of Duke upon a scion of this race in exchange for feudal homage and service.

When in the seventeenth century a Duke of Savoy married the daughter of Henry IV, the Waldenses first began to congregate in villages and lonely places to worship God in their own way; their peace being disturbed only when, at the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, Louis XIV prevailed upon their lord to persecute them without mercy.

During the War of the Spanish Succession Italy became involved, and when it was settled by the treaty of Utrecht, Spain abandoned Naples, Milan, and Sardinia to Germany. As Savoy throughout the quarrel had loyally helped Germany, its Duke received in reward a strip of territory between Piedmont and Milan, and in 1720 was allowed to exchange Sardinia for Sicily and assume the title of king.

In 1735 Naples was restored to Spain, and it was under the wise rule of Charles III that Pompeii and Herculaneum were recovered, after remaining buried beneath the ashes of Mt. Vesuvius for sixteen centuries.

Throughout all Central and Northeastern Italy, Austrian control now replaced that of Spain, for Maria Theresa's husband was also Grand Duke of Tuscany. But

in Southern Italy (Naples and Sicily) as well as in Parma and Piacenza, the Bourbons and Estes ruled on, while in the Northwest Savoy continued its mild yet progressive course. In fact, the Church or Papal States then fared worst of all in Italy, having much to suffer from extortion and bad government.

Genoa, whose prestige had greatly declined since the Spanish and Portuguese discoveries had opened new roads to India and the New World, was by this time so impoverished, that in 1768 she sold Corsica to France, although the island, wholly Italian in tendencies, resented the transfer, and refused to submit, until sundry futile attempts had been made to shake off the French yoke. It was shortly after the transfer, but before the point of submission had been reached, that Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio, accident thus making him a Frenchman, although his sympathies were at first all Corsican.

The French Revolution marks the end of absolutism everywhere, and had its echo in Italy, where passions were so stirred that Bonaparte's appearance at the head of any army proved like a spark in a keg of powder. Austria — one of the most arbitrary powers in Europe — had ruled so despotically that all were glad to shake off her yoke, and in less than ten months Bonaparte signed the Treaty of Campo-Formio, whereby the Ligurian, Cispadane, Cisalpine, Tiberian, and Parthenopian republics were duly proclaimed, with capitals at Milan, Genoa, Bologna, Rome, and Naples. Venice alone was left under Austria's rule, and, as the Pope obstinately refused to subscribe to these arrangements or relinquish his temporal authority, he was conveyed to France, where he died in captivity in 1799.

The Austrian attempt to recover lost ground during Bonaparte's absence in Egypt, his venturesome return, his journey over the Alps, and second Italian campaign, were swiftly followed by the political changes which resulted in the proclamation of the Empire in 1804. But no sooner had Napoleon been crowned in Paris than

he came to Milan, to receive also the iron crown of Lombardy.

Changes now took place in Italy also, where Eugene Beauharnais, Napoleon's stepson, became viceroy of the northern part, while Joseph Bonaparte was King of Naples, and a Bourbon ruled Etruria. The new Pope, proving just as obstinate as his predecessor, was also detained captive in France, and Romagna meantime formed part of the French Empire. Under French sway, old divisions were thus swept away, Jews and Protestants were protected, and had it not been for the restrictions upon commerce, necessitated by Napoleon's policy, all would have seemed quite satisfactory to the majority of the people.

During this period the Bourbons had taken refuge in Sicily, where, under pretext of protecting them, England remained in possession until after the Restoration. Sicily was the point of vantage from which Britain could keep a close watch upon Naples, where, when Joseph was made King of Spain, Murat, Napoleon's brother-in-law, became ruler and general favourite. In fact, such was his popularity that he retained his title even after Napoleon's first abdication, and could thus stand by his patron's side during the Hundred Days, and make a gallant charge at the head of his troops at Waterloo. After Napoleon had been banished to St. Helena, Murat made a desperate attempt to recover his kingdom, paying for this venture with his life.

In remodelling Europe, the Congress of Vienna tried to restore things as much as possible on the old footing. Southern Italy was given back to the Bourbons, the Church States to the Pope, Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and Lucca to Austrian archdukes and archduchesses, while Northern Italy (with the exception of Savoy, Piedmont, and Sardinia, which continued to belong to the House of Savoy) formed a Lombardo-Venetian kingdom under the protectorate of Austria. In fact, this protectorate extended over the whole peninsula, and every attempt to resist despotism was put down with a harsh hand, as

is testified by the massacres following the uprising at Naples, and the severity exercised in Rome and Piedmont. But the Neapolitan king merely submitted to this severity, while the Pope not only abetted it, but restored the Inquisition, hoping to suppress both Jews and Protestants. The people, now accustomed to more freedom, did not like this, and formed Liberal and Carbonari parties, both of which had liberty in view, and were to find a leader at last in Victor Emmanuel II the "Liberator."

The crown of Sardinia having lapsed in 1821, Metternich, the unscrupulous Austrian minister, began manipulations to bestow it upon a daughter of the late king, whom he wished to wed to Francis II of Tuscany — his tool. This scheme was, however, viewed with such jealous disfavour by France that it had to be relinquished; so the crown was given instead to Charles Albert, brother of the late king, after a promise had been wrung which not only tied his hands, but drove him to abdicate in favour of his son, on the battlefield of Novara, in 1849.

Although the new king came to power at twenty-nine, in a moment of defeat and great depression, he was so energetic, and so ably seconded by his prime-minister, Cavour, that he finally accomplished the aim then formulated in the determined but low-spoken words: "And yet Italy shall be."

Meantime, Austria punished the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom with such cruel severity for trying to recover its freedom that public indignation was aroused, and the Liberal and Carbonari factions all over the country worked more determinately than ever. Among the Italian patriots of this epoch were Garibaldi and Mazzini, two enthusiasts, who dreamed constantly of a united Italy, and were ready to sacrifice everything to bring this dream to pass.

But when Garibaldi made a premature effort to free Rome, French troops not only ousted him and restored the Pope, but remained on hand to protect and uphold the Holy See until 1870. Thus the Italian Revolution

of 1849 ended in dismal failure, for the Austrian yoke rested even more heavily than before upon an unfortunate people.

As Victor Emmanuel had headed the revolt and been unsuccessful, he was coldly received at Turin, — where the war indemnity further added to the already oppressive taxes, — but Cavour and the “Honest King” (*Il Re Galantuomo*) stood manfully at the helm, biding their time, and little by little effecting all the reforms in their power.

Meantime the Austrians had sent Maximilian and Carlotta, of Mexican renown, to Lombardy, where they spent a couple of years vainly trying to do good, yet were too sorely hampered by Austrian control to accomplish any of their generous purposes.

In 1854, when the Crimean War took place, Victor Emmanuel II sided with France, England, and Turkey against Russia, and not only won military glory, but was admitted to an equal footing with the five great powers of Europe at the Treaty of Paris. The fact that the Italian king had been the ally of Napoleon III and of Victoria, made him hope for their assistance in securing freedom for his country; but this assistance was firmly yet gently refused, and he had to wait patiently for a more favourable moment.

In 1859 Cavour diplomatically ascertained that Napoleon III would grant his support, provided Victor Emmanuel's daughter were given in marriage to his cousin, and Savoy promised to France. These conditions, however distasteful, were granted, and war was no sooner declared against Austria than Italian patriots made such lively demonstrations that the Austrian rulers of Florence, Parma, and Modena incontinently fled, and the inhabitants of these places voluntarily recognised themselves subjects of Victor Emmanuel, whom they hailed “King of Italy.”

Side by side, Victor Emmanuel and Napoleon III rode in triumph into Milan, which went delirious with joy at welcoming these deliverers, and at the battle of

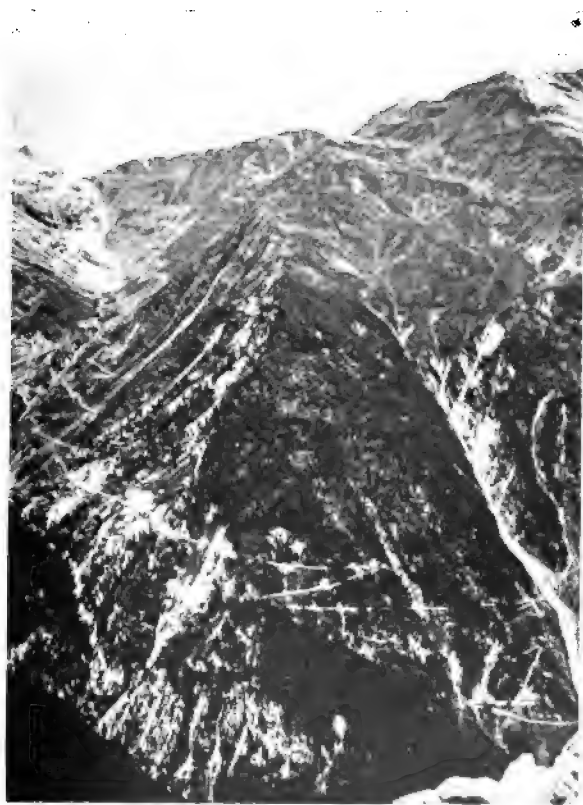
Solferino the fate of Italy was sealed. Although it now seemed as if Italy would indeed "be free from the Alps to the Sea," as Napoleon III had boastfully promised, for some reason, which no one has yet been able to fathom entirely, he suddenly signed the Peace of Villafranca, whereby Venice and the adjoining territory was left under Austrian control. Victor Emmanuel, "betrayed and insulted" by his ally, was nevertheless forced to cede Savoy and Nice to France, receiving in exchange Lombardy, and keeping the towns which had voluntarily joined him, and which he generously refused to abandon, in spite of the pressure brought to bear upon him when the treaty was signed.

King of all except Venice, — which still belonged to Austria, — Rome, the property of the Pope, and Naples, where Francis II reigned, Victor Emmanuel was again obliged to play a waiting game. But while he remained cool and patient, Garibaldi, the personification of impetuosity, collected troops, and not only conquered Sicily in his name, but also took possession of Naples (1860).

When the new Parliament assembled in 1861, all Italy was represented, save Venice and Rome; but there was still much to be done, for the country was in a dreadful financial condition, and no less than three-fourths of the population were absolutely illiterate. An alliance between one of Victor Emmanuel's daughters and the King of Portugal not only strengthened the Re Galantuomo's position, but afforded the necessary excuse for pardoning Garibaldi, who had made an untimely and therefore unsuccessful attempt to seize Rome as he had seized Naples.

After the Prusso-Austrian War in 1866, though beaten by the Austrians at Custozza, the King of Italy was rewarded for his help to Prussia by the gift of Venice, and all Italy was now under his sway, save Rome and its immediate vicinity, which still remained under papal rule, backed by French troops.

In 1870, the very year that papal infallibility was pro-



Stelvio Pass, Austria  
pp. 159, 195



Lake of Sils, Engadine Valley

p. 195



claimed, the Franco-Prussian War put an end to the French Empire and its protection of the Pope, and Victor Emmanuel, taking advantage of this fact, entered Rome after a short conflict with the papal force. Pius IX thereafter elected to pose as a victim, calling himself the "prisoner of the Vatican," — an attitude of protest against the national government which has been maintained with modifications by his successors Leo XIII and Pius X. Nevertheless, the King of Italy, whose capital had been removed from Turin to Florence in 1864, now came to inhabit the Quirinal at Rome, whence, by the "Papal Guarantee" a suitable income was assured to the Pope, besides jurisdiction over the churches of Rome and six suburban sees, inviolable ownership of and sovereignty over the Lateran and Vatican palaces with their grounds, collections, etc., and Castel Gandolfo, the papal summer resort.

The present king, born to the crown prince and princess in 1869, was but two years of age when first exhibited to the enthusiastic Roman people on the entry of his grandfather into the city. A year or so later, in 1872, the Italians mourned the death of the patriot Mazzini, and that of Garibaldi ten years after. In 1879 both king and Pope passed away; so King Humbert and Pope Leo XIII came into power, while earthquakes, floods, and the cholera were doing their best to retard the progress of the country, which was labouring besides under great financial drawbacks.

Humbert, the second king of United Italy, was assassinated in 1900, and since then Victor Emmanuel III and his wife, Helena of Montenegro, have reigned so acceptably over the peninsula that its progress in education, industry, and finance has become quite marked. Two daughters and one son now play in the royal nursery, and it looks as if the hard-won *Unity of Italy* were at last secure.

## Chronology of Italian History

- |           |   |           |   |
|-----------|---|-----------|---|
| A. D.     |   | A. D.     |   |
| 476       | End of Western Empire.                              | 1282-1435 | Kingdom of Sicily under Aragon.                           |
| 568       | Lombard rule in Italy.                              | 1282      | Sicilian Vespers.   |
| 755-1870  | Temporal power of Popes.                            | 1300      | Neri <i>vs.</i> Bianchi in Florence.                      |
| 800       | Charlemagne crowned at Rome.                        | 1301      | Dante exiled.   |
| 810       | Venice removes to present site. St. Mark's begun.   | 1305-1376 | Babylonian Captivity. Popes in Avignon.                   |
| 827       | Saracens invade Sicily.                             | 1326      | Aragon <i>vs.</i> Pisa in Sardinia.                       |
| 890-1043  | Greeks conquer and hold South Italy.                | 1339      | Genoa with doge. Free companies in Italy.                 |
| 962       | Otto the Great crowned emperor.                     | 1343      | Joanna I at Naples.                                       |
| 1003      | Pavia <i>vs.</i> Lucca. First Italian Mediæval War. | 1347-1354 | Rienzi Tribune at Rome. Death.                            |
| 1017      | Pisans drive Saracens from Sardinia.                | 1348      | Great Plague. Boccaccio. Decameron.                       |
| 1018-1045 | Heribert of Milan rules North Italy.                | 1376      | Pope returns to Rome.                                     |
| 1053-1194 | Normans in Sicily.                                  | 1369      | Pisa and Lucca free.                                      |
| 1055-1115 | Countess Mathilda in Tuscany.                       | 1375      | Eighty cities <i>vs.</i> Pope.                            |
| 1063      | Pisa Cathedral begun.                               | 1378      | Great schism begins.                                      |
| 1077      | War of Investitures. Henry IV at Canossa.           | 1385      | Milan Cathedral begun.                                    |
| 1115      | Florence and Tuscan cities independent.             | 1388      | Nice joined to Savoy.                                     |
| 1124      | Venetian conquests.                                 | 1390-1398 | French interference at Milan and Genoa.                   |
| 1152      | Frederick Barbarossa. Pisa Baptistry begun.         | 1406      | Pisa subject to Florence.                                 |
| 1153-1177 | Frederick's wars in Italy.                          | 1409      | Florence invites Anjou to claim Naples.                   |
| 1176      | Battle of Legnano.                                  | 1416      | Piedmont joined to Savoy.                                 |
| 1198-1266 | Kingdom of 'Two Sicilies under Hohenstaufens.       | 1435-1448 | Kingdom of Two Sicilies.                                  |
| 1215-1248 | Buondelmonte <i>vs.</i> Amidei in Florence.         | 1450      | Sforza in Milan.  |
| 1222      | Padua University founded. Pisa <i>vs.</i> Florence. | 1454      | Peace of Lodi between Milan and Venice.                   |
| 1243      | Enzio driven from Milan.                            | 1455      | Italian League <i>vs.</i> Turks.                          |
| 1252      | First florin coined in Florence.                    | 1458      | Cosmo de' Medici and Lucas Pitti, plot.                   |
| 1253      | Florence supreme.                                   | 1458-1503 | Kingdoms of Naples and Sicily under separate Aragon rule. |
| 1264      | Della Torre <i>vs.</i> Visconti, Milan.             | 1477      | Revolt of Fieschi.  |
| 1266      | Charles Anjou in Florence.                          | 1478      | Pazzi conspiracy in Florence. Excommunication.            |
| 1266-1282 | Kingdom of Two Sicilies under Anjou.                | 1489-1498 | Savonarola in Florence. Martyrdom.                        |
| 1270      | Dorias and Spinolas in Genoa. Visconti in Milan.    | 1491      | Charles VIII enters Italy.                                |
| 1280      | Count of Savoy in Turin.                            | 1500      | Louis XII conquers Milan.                                 |
| 1282-1288 | Pisa <i>vs.</i> Genoa. Starvation of Ugolino.       | 1502      | Orsini <i>vs.</i> Borgia. Rome.                           |
|           |   | 1503-1516 | Kingdom of Two Sicilies under Kings of Spain.             |
|           |   | 1504      | Ferdinand of Spain conquers Naples.                       |
|           |   | 1509      | League of Cambray.  |

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| <p>A. D.<br/>1510-1512 Italy a prey to French, Swiss, Spaniards, Germans.<br/>1513 Leo X a. Medici Pope. Battle of Novara.<br/>1515 Francis I at Marignano.<br/>1516-1700 Kingdom of Two Sicilies under Austro-Spanish rule.<br/>1519 Charles V. emperor.<br/>1525 Battle of Pavia.<br/>1527 Sack of Rome. Medici driven from Florence.<br/>1528 Genoa Republic restored.<br/>1529 France renounces all claims to Italy.<br/>1530 Charles V. emperor. Fall of Florence.<br/>1540 Society of Jesus formed.<br/>1559 End of French Spanish War.<br/>1569 Cosmo de' Medici grand duke of Tuscany.<br/>1571 Battle of Lepanto.<br/>1574 Restoration of Duke Emmanuel Philibert.</p> | <p>A. D.<br/>1635-1637 Victor Amadeus I.<br/>1647 Insurrection in Naples. Masaniello.<br/>1684 Venetians conquer Peloponnesus.<br/>1690 Religious toleration in Savoy.<br/>1713 Italy under Austrian rule.<br/>1713-1720 Naples and Sicily separate.<br/>1718 Venice ends 500 years' struggle vs. Turks. Exchange of Sicily for Sardinia by Victor Amadeus.<br/>1719 Spaniards driven from Sicily.<br/>1730-1773 Charles Emmanuel King of Piedmont and Sardinia.<br/>1731 Sardinia vs. Papal power.<br/>1733-1738 Allies try to eject Austria from Italy.<br/>1734-1806 Kingdom of Two Sicilies under Bourbon rule.<br/>1737 End of the Medici.<br/>1738 War of Polish Succession.</p> |
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### *Spanish Bourbons.*

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| <p>1740-1748 War of Austrian Succession.<br/>1746 Revolt of Genoa.<br/>1755-1768 Paoli's attempts in Corsica.<br/>1769 Napoleon's birth.<br/>1773 Abolition of Society of Jesus.</p> | <p>1773-1796 Victor Amadeus II.<br/>1792 French take Savoy and Nice.<br/>1796-1797 Bonaparte's first Italian campaign. Treaty of Campo Formio.<br/>1796-1802 Charles Emmanuel restored.</p> |
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### *Cispadane, Ligurian, and Cisalpine Republics.*

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| <p>1798 French army enters Rome. Pope Pius VI prisoner in France.<br/>1799 English in Rome. Second Campaign of Bonaparte in Italy. Marengo.<br/>1801-1803 Tuscany a kingdom.<br/>1802-1806 Victor Emmanuel I.<br/>1802 Italian Republic.<br/>1805 Italian kingdom. Napoleon king.<br/>1805-1807 Lucca and Etruria to Elisa Bonaparte.<br/>1806-1815 Naples and Sicily separate.</p> | <p>1809 Napoleon seizes Rome, is excommunicated.<br/>1810 Papal States added to French Empire.<br/>1814 Pope returns to Rome at fall of Napoleon.<br/>1814-1821 Victor Emmanuel restored.<br/>1815 Treaty of Vienna. Victor Emmanuel King of Sardinia and Genoa. Venice and Milan Austrian provinces. Austrian "protection" over all Italy. San Marino only Italian re-</p> |
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A. D.		A. D.	
	public. Pope rules Papal States.	1861-1878	Victor Emmanuel I King of Italy.
1815-1860	Kingdom of Two Sicilies under Bourbon rule.	1862	Garibaldi defeated at Aspromonte.
1821-1831	Sundry revolts. Charles Felix king.	1864	Florence capital.
1831-1849	Sundry revolts. Charles Albert king. Mazzini.	1866	Prusso-Austrian War. Italy sides with Prussia, gains Venice.
1848	First War of Independence.	1867	Mazzini and Garibaldi try to seize Rome.
1849	Battle of Novara.	1870	Victor Emmanuel enters Rome. Pope voluntary prisoner of Vatican.
1849-1878	Victor Emmanuel II king.	1871	Rome capital of United Italy.
1850	Pope opposes Piedmont reforms.	1874	Jesuits ordered to leave Italy.
1853	Cavour plans United Italy.	1878-1900	Humbert king.
1845	Sardinia in Crimean War.	1887	Triple Alliance: Italy, Germany, Austria.
1859	Franco-Italian War <i>vs.</i> Austria. Magenta, Solferino. Peace of Villafranca. Savoy and Nice to France.	1888-1895	Abyssinian War.
1860	Italian States (save Rome and Venice) join Piedmont. Garibaldi delivers Sicily and Naples. Death of Cavour.	1900-	Victor Emmanuel II.
		1903	Death of Leo XIII. Pius X elected.
		1904	Birth of Prince of Piedmont.

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## XVIII

### TRAVEL IN ITALY

THERE is almost no end to the number of points by which a traveller may enter Italy, points on which the whole future itinerary hinges. Coming through Mt. Cenis, the first of the three great Alpine tunnels, one enters Piedmont, a picturesque mountain region, with Turin as municipal centre. This city was, besides, capital of the Kingdom of Sardinia and Piedmont which expanded into the present United Italy. Up in the Highlands of Piedmont are great groves of chestnut trees, whose product forms the main staple of food of a frugal peasant class. There, too, are picturesque herdsmen, and toward the south, where the land gradually drops down to the sea level, one finds silkworm culture in a thriving condition.

If, instead of entering Italy by that triumph of engineering skill the Mt. Cenis tunnel, one elects to climb over the mountain barrier, it is quite possible to follow the now comparatively deserted post-road constructed by Napoleon's orders, along the pass where Cæsar and many other famous characters wended their way in the course of past centuries. This trip affords, besides, exhilarating air, countless delightful views, and it certainly does not pay any traveller to go *under* a mountain if time and strength are vouchsafed him to pass leisurely *over* it.

The chain of Alps between Italy and France offers few passes besides the bleak Col di Tenda; therefore the main tide of travel and invasion generally skirted the shore, where all attractions combine to make the Italian Riviera a fit continuation of that of France. Through this region tourists should walk or drive, following, if

possible, every turn of the beautiful Corniche road from Nice to Speccia. In this curving strip of land, known for ages as Liguria, we find Genoa, with its unrivalled situation and its exquisite bay, an old terraced town with picturesque palaces and many mementos of the bygone republic. It is also the birthplace of Christopher Columbus and of Mazzini, the great Italian patriot. The vine and olive thrive here, and from Genoa itself great quantities of wine and oil, as well as of honey, hides, and wool, are exported, products which find their way thither from inland and upland regions.

Almost directly north of Genoa lies Pavia, a town of Lombardy, in a region famous for fruit trees, vineyards, silk culture, and grain, — in fact, the very “land flowing with milk and honey,” that so often enticed the barbarians over the Alps, which form its barrier against cold north winds. Pavia is also famous for the battle where Francis I is popularly reported to have “lost all save honour,” and boasts a Carthusian monastery, now maintained as a national monument, where all manner of interesting things can be seen, as well as the picturesque church where the Visconti lie buried in state.

From Pavia to Milan is but a short journey, for places of interest stud Italy so thickly that one can hardly go a step without pausing fascinated by some beautiful view, quaint village, picturesque peasant, great ruin, or art treasure, long cherished with particular veneration by a beauty-loving race.

Milan, the capital of the ancient Lombardian realm, the mediæval free city which waged fierce war against its neighbours, and the place to which the exquisite Gothic cathedral, the Brera Gallery, and Da Vinci's fast-vanishing “Last Supper” lure many travellers, lies, besides, on the usual road to or from the Italian Lake Region, the goal of all who can possibly reach this point in the course of their journeyings.

These curving lakes, with beautiful villas along their shores, with almost ideal climate, with the eternal snows of the distant Alps to contrast with their blue waters, are

spots which all visitors rave about, and which, like magnets, draw you again and again to their banks, to revel in their charms. Lake Maggiore, the farthest west of these winding sheets of bluest waters, boasts of Locarno, Pallanza, and Ponte Tresa, a half-Italian and half-Swiss town, as well as of marvellous grottos, for in this region are numerous interesting quarries, which have supplied building material for Milan Cathedral and many other fine edifices.

At Lugano one finds the railway station for the St. Gothard Railway, which affords on emerging from the mountain on either side views unsurpassed anywhere. In case Lake Maggiore's more severe shores, the romantic Borromean islands and Lake Lugano must be foregone, one can visit the Y-shaped Lake of Como, reaching it directly from Milan, although one is rewarded by stopping by the way to visit Monza, the old haunt of a Lombard queen, with its cathedral and famous iron crown, as well as the Summer Palace, where Napoleon sported with Josephine and where King Umberto was assassinated.

On reaching Como, the centre of a thriving silk-trade as well as a resort for pleasure and health seekers, another fine cathedral with art treasures awaits you, and by taking one of the small lake steamers you can pause at sundry points along the picturesque shore. Here, again, villas dot the green slopes, and vineyards, olive, chestnut, and walnut groves, afford verdure and shade as well as wine, oil, and nuts in abundance. To enumerate all the points of interest in this region would extend this sketch to the dimensions of a volume; besides, its various attractions are duly indicated in good guide books, to which you can refer. It suffices to state that Como is at the end of one branch of the Y, Lecco at the other, while Chiavenna nestles at its base toward the Alps. From this point people often set out for drives lasting hours, days, or weeks, and by winding thus leisurely in and out of mountain passes to enjoy the greatest possible variety of delightful views, one comes into closer contact with





The Canal with Church of San Fosca and  
Campanile, Torcello  
p. 216



Cathedral of San Zeno, Verona  
pp. 216, 463, 469

the natives, whose contentment with a frugal mode of life is a wholesome lesson.

The Lombardian region has been so constantly a battlefield since the beginning of our era, that history-lovers find almost at every step places which conjure up images of the past, and have besides natural charms fitted to every taste.

East from Lecco, and on the way to Lake Garda, — the fourth and largest of the Italian lakes, — one encounters, first, Bergamo, with its manufactures, churches, and picture galleries, and then Brescia, with its firearm factories, its glorious historical and artistic record, its cathedral, library, old square, towers, museums, churches, etc. While the southern shores of Lake Garda are low and fertile, decked with olive and lemon groves, they become steeper and more rocky as one proceeds northward, until, on reaching the Austrian part of that azure sheet of water, the views are so grand that it is easy to understand what an inspiration these surroundings proved to the poet Catullus.

Directly south from the lowest and broadest end of the lake, we find Mantua, an ancient Etruscan town, the home of Virgil, and the scene of many a stirring conflict. Its quaint arcaded square, its cathedral, palaces, and art treasures, not to mention its glorious view of the Alps, make this a most attractive city to visit, either on the way to or from Cremona.

This last-named city boasts Gallic, Roman, Gothic, and Lombardian remains; it defied Milan in the days of Barbarossa, and was, besides, a battlefield during one of the many Franco-Austrian wars. Famous for its violins and other musical instruments, it has one of the loftiest towers in Italy, a cathedral, baptistery, and several fine palaces, most of which are thrown open to strangers, who thus have the benefit of the art treasures they enclose.

Piedmont and Lombardy are only two of the three great northern provinces of Italy, the third and farthest east being Venetia, which includes Vicenza with its clock

tower and pictures by old masters, Verona the home of Romeo and Juliet, Padua of university fame, and, last but by no means least, Venice, queen of the Adriatic!

To describe Venice or its manifold attractions in limited space is impossible. Most of those who visit Italy at all are safe to include this city in their itinerary, and to them its charms will prove beyond compare. It is well, however, to bear in mind that remote canals often reveal more local colour than the Grand Canal during the travel season, and that the narrow crooked streets, connected by quaint arching bridges, not only enable you to circulate almost everywhere on foot, but give you also delightful glimpses of homely Venetian life. Venetian art is sure to exercise a spell over all lovers of the beautiful, on account of its characteristically rich colouring; and the treasures the city contains in St. Mark's, and elsewhere, afford endless subjects for minute and interesting study.

The local industries, such as mosaic and glass manufactures, the sea-bathing, life among the fishermen on the Lido, and excursions by gondola or steamer to accessible points of interest, form other fascinating features of a genuine Venetian programme.

While the lower part of Venetia suggests comparisons with Holland, the northern section of the country rises rapidly until you find yourself among mountains which grow wilder and more picturesque as you draw near the Austrian frontier. There ranges of Alps again confront us, through which winding valleys lead into Tyrol and Carinthia. In the northwest are the beautiful Dolomite Alps, with their wonderful rock formations and strange rich colouring, a region with many quaint villages and a most industrious population.

The province of Italy now known as the Emilia includes the former duchies of Parma and Modena, as well as that part of the papal estates known as the Romagna. Bordering on the west on Liguria and Lombardy, it has its seacoast only on the Adriatic, with Rimini as its most important port. Among the many interesting towns of

that region, we note Piacenza of old Roman fame, with a bridge of boats over the Po and the uncompleted Farnese Palace; and from there we can proceed by railway directly to Parma, famous for many things besides its cathedral, violets, art treasures, and memories of the faithless consort of Napoleon. Thence you may go to Reggio, — home of the poet Ariosto, who gave the last touches to the Roland myth, — then to Canossa, which beheld the humiliation of an emperor and the triumph of his papal foe, ere passing on to Modena, where Brutus first took refuge after murdering Cæsar. This city is redolent also with memories of Countess Mathilda, of the Guelf and Ghibelline wars, of the Estes and the Austrians, and famous for a species of terra cotta, just as Faenza is known far and wide for the peculiar glazed ware which bears its name.

The distance between Modena and Bologna is so inconsiderable that it is no wonder the two places were often at war. Bologna, of the ancient university and quaint square towers, not only has the honour of giving its name to a school of painting, of which the Francia family, the Carracci, Domenichino, and Albani are shining lights, but it was the prison of Enzo for more than a score of weary years. In 1512 it was annexed by Julian II, and remained in the hands of the Popes until Napoleon decreed that it should form part of the Cisalpine Republic. After a brief return to papal rule and sundry revolutions, Bologna joined the Kingdom of Italy in 1859, and since then it has proved loyal to the present reigning family.

Visitors find that the historical, literary, and artistic attractions of Bologna are as manifold as are those of Ravenna, the cradle of early Christian art, one of the most ancient towns in Italy, and the capital of the Exarchate as well as of the Gothic realm of Theodoric, whose tomb and palace are still extant. Dante also lies buried here in Ravenna, although he was a native of Florence. The ancient church of S. Vitale with its quaint mosaics served as the model for many other edifices; among

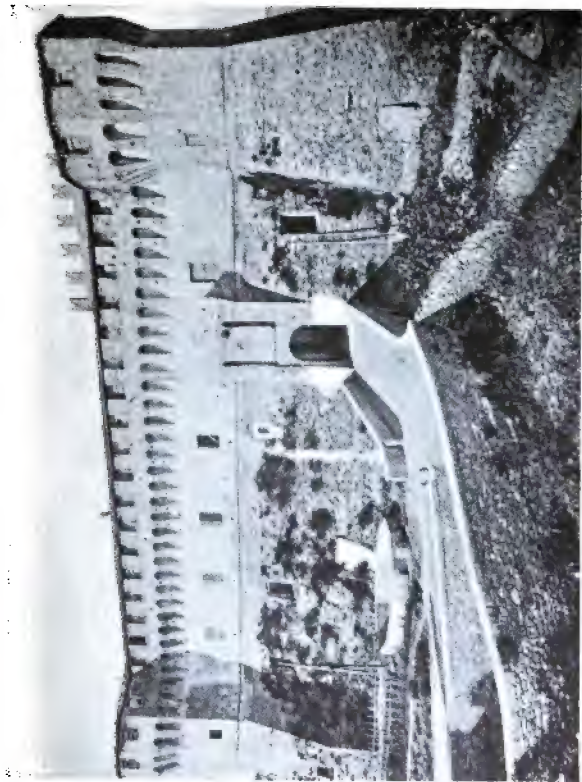
others, the Cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle, built near the Rhine by Charlemagne.

It is on the southern frontier of the Emilia, and not very far from Rimini, that we come across the lilliputian republic of San Marino, perched up on its rocky height, a position of vantage which enabled it to defend its much prized independence. The oldest state in Europe and one of the smallest in the world, San Marino, bound by treaty to the present Kingdom of Italy, still retains its old institutions.

If we enter Tuscany along the shore line, the dazzling heights of Carrara — whence marble of the greatest purity has long been quarried — first strike our view, creating a brief delusion that we again behold the snow-clad Alps, although we know that they lie far northward. It is the rose-coloured streaks in the white surface which produce the deceptive appearance, for they look strangely like bare rock peeping out here and there from snow fields and glittering ice.

Soon, however, we lose sight of these world-famed quarries, and speed on through a country where the Etruscan state reached its zenith in the sixth century B. C., until we come to Lucca with its quaint fortifications, ancient churches, royal villa, and famous baths. From there other bathing-resorts can be visited on the way to Pistoja, whence pistols originated and which is still noted for its manufactures of firearms. This city is also famous for a cathedral with Della Robbia bas-reliefs, and for its baptistery and palaces. The vacation tourist, however, can afford to spend but little time here, for Pisa is only a short distance farther on.

In the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, owing to its maritime power, Pisa, the most influential city in Tuscany, decked itself with a cathedral, baptistery, and Leaning Tower which have been the world's admiration ever since. In this city, too, one can visit the frescoed cloister of the "Burial Ground" ("Campo Santo"), whose soil was brought from Mt. Calvary, one of the many curiosities of a city, which, on account of its art



**Gradara, La Rocca, Italy**



The Tribune, Uffizi Gallery, Florence

p. 220



treasures, its quaint and numerous churches and other fine buildings, attracts innumerable strangers.

From Pisa it is comparatively easy to visit Leghorn (Livorno), a thriving modern seaport situated in the midst of the salt marshes (the Maremma) noted for their malarial fevers. This place is connected by canal with the Arno, and is hence considered the seaport of Florence, just as Ostia is that of Rome. From this point, or from Marseilles, one reaches Corsica, landing either at the northern port of Bastia or the southwestern harbour of Ajaccio, where Napoleon was born in 1769. As there is only one short railway line through the island, all other travelling must be done either by stagecoach (diligence) or on horseback, for the country is as wild as its inhabitants, who are noted for a revengeful spirit which has given birth to many bloody vendettas. In language, climate, and situation, this island is still all Italian, although it was ceded to France in 1768 and has since formed a "department" of that country. But Corsican views and sport, as well as its historical associations, attract only those who can forego luxuries and encounter sundry hardships.

Corsica is separated only by a narrow strait from Sardinia, which can also be reached directly from Leghorn. Although the main part of the island is mountainous, the lowlands are so unhealthful that strangers are cautioned not to linger there at any season, and to avoid them rigidly from July to October. Here, too, railway travel often has to be supplemented by other modes of locomotion, and unless one is particularly interested in mining, or enjoys prowling about out-of-the-way places, a visit to these islands can easily be foregone.

Most travellers landing in Leghorn devote very little time to its examination, but hurry on to Florence, *the* great art centre in a country where such centres are manifold. Besides, Italian history is so interwoven with that of this great mediæval republic, that we have had occasion to mention its name several times before. Minute study of its treasures could occupy years, but

even a few weeks, or a winter, in Florence is a delightful experience. Such writers as Ruskin, Hutton, Hare, Grant Allen, etc., have written at length about its attractions, and the more you linger among them the greater your interest in the history, art, and life of a city made immortal by Dante, Savonarola, the Medici, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, to mention only five of the great names inscribed on its long roll of fame.

After visiting the places indicated in every guide book as "star attractions," the sojourner in the city can find amusement in studying the life of the people, and in making excursions to the shady Vallombrosa, to Fiesole with its cyclopean walls, San Miniato with its famous church, Torre del Gallo with its mementos of Galileo, La Certosa, where the last few monks are peacefully ending their days, and Monte Oliveto, with its extensive panorama of Florence and of the Arno, as well as to the Cascine, or fashionable drive.

From Florence to Arezzo, the birthplace of Mæcenas, Petrarch, and Vasari, past such fascinating places as Cortona, with its art treasure, Volterra, with its salt-works, to the island of Elba, where Napoleon was banished, or past the mediæval hill towns of San Gimignano and Montepulciano, with their old fortifications, gateways, and palaces, we reach Siena, noted for its wood-carving, Gothic architecture, and school of painting.

Next we can linger at Perugia, where the Umbrian school of painting flourished, with Perugino and Pinturicchio as its principal exponents, and where historical and artistic memories and remains crowd thick and fast upon our notice. Orvieto's superb Gothic cathedral and Etruscan Necropolis, the picturesque lake and town of Bolsena, in a region once occupied by the Volscians (whose wars with Rome we recall in connection with Camillus), Viterbo, noted for its handsome women, are all interesting points, before reaching Assisi, the cradle of the Franciscan Order of monks and nuns. The buildings here, once occupied by the holy community, are now utilised for a normal school, but the frescos in

the upper and lower churches, not to mention the crypt where St. Francis lies buried, will long continue, as heretofore, to attract lovers of the picturesque and art students from all climes.

Each one of the small towns we have to pass by has its peculiar industry or special masterpiece — generally a famous altar picture — but one and all would charm travellers, were it only possible to linger there long enough to get in touch with the people. The majority of tourists can, however, afford to make only a few stops between Florence and Rome, although Urbino, the birthplace of Raphael, forms a charming excursion for all who can spare time to visit its cathedral, ducal palace, and picture gallery.

From Ancona, an old Roman seaport on the Adriatic, pilgrimages can be made to Loreto, where at times the faithful throng, and one can also make an ascension of Monte Conero and be rewarded by a magnificent view.

Before reaching Rome itself, the train passes through the now almost deserted Campagna, where fevers reign as they do in the Maremma, — fevers against which travellers must guard with care, the usual precautions being to avoid drinking any of the water of those regions, and not to linger out doors at hottest noontide or after sundown. At certain hours and seasons the Campagna is so safe, however, that the Hunt meets there regularly during the season, the foreign colony being large enough and rich enough to fill its ranks.

A volume would be required merely to enumerate the points of interest in Rome, points which are duly indicated in guide books and eloquently described in many of the volumes in the list appended. Still, the longer one sojourns there, the greater the desire to see and learn all one can of this fascinating city, now the capital of United Italy, where two sovereigns, the king and Pope, occupy respectively the palaces of the Quirinal and of the Vatican.

In the latter, ever since the time of Julian II, art

treasures have been accumulating, which are now the wonder and admiration of the world. But these treasures are interesting only in a measure as we understand their origin, the events with which they are connected, and can appreciate their beauty and rarity. "A thoroughly ignorant man visiting such a collection as that of the Vatican in Rome is like a deaf person at a concert of music; he sees the motions of the performers, but, although his friends may communicate to him the purpose for which the motions are made, he can have no perfect idea of their effects, and certainly but little enjoyment or appreciation of the real merits of the music."

In Rome it is easy to secure driver-guides by the hour, day, or week, who can supply all manner of information, which, if not always strictly accurate, is apt to be very graphic and often highly coloured. Thus you can gain an insight into the Italian character, especially if you understand the vernacular well enough to catch what coachmen, boatmen, waiters, etc. have to say to you and among themselves.

The interest of Rome and of its seven hills is simply inexhaustible, for we have Old Rome and New Rome, the Rome of the republic, of the empire, and of the early Christians. Then come mediæval Rome, the Rome of the Renaissance, Papal Rome, and now the Rome of United Italy, which shows by its rapid growth that its vitality is still unabated. Even if we were only to trace the successive sieges of Rome, from the one where Tarpeia lost her life to the last, in 1870, and mark the changes they brought about, we should find it an almost interminable task.

Still, people are just as fascinating, if not more so, than relics of the past, and the traveller who is merely relaxing can find endless objects of interest in studying the various phases of Italian life, and in mingling freely with the people in all walks of life.

From Rome, as a centre, it is also possible to make delightful excursions to the churches without the walls, to the catacombs, to the various roads bordered with

ancient monuments, to the aqueducts, some of which are now in ruins, while others continue to supply modern Rome with water, although not quite as lavishly as in olden times, when public baths were numerous and much frequented. There are sundry villas with beautiful gardens in the immediate neighbourhood of the Eternal City, as well as ancient temples, circuses, and fountains; and excursions to Frascati in the Alban Mountains, to Tusculum with its castle, to the monastery of Grotto Ferrata, and to Marino, celebrated for its wine, are a few of the attractions within easy reach.

These excursions can be further supplemented by others, for one can also visit Castel Gandolfo, the summer resort of the Popes, Lake Albano, the woods of Arlochio, the extinct crater wherein the waters of Lake Nemi have collected, the Roman summer resort Rocca d'Ardea, the sulphur springs of Bagni, the fountains and villa of Tivoli, the heights of Subiaco, and the various resorts in the Sabine Hills. An excursion to Ostia, Rome's old seaport, now almost deserted but once a thriving centre, also reveals rich vestiges of its palmy days.

Between Rome and Naples the points of great interest are comparatively few. Still, a sojourn among the shepherds of the Abruzzi — where endless opportunities for sketching occur — is always delightful to people of artistic tastes, as well as to all nature lovers. By turning slightly aside from the railway, one can visit Anagni, where a Pope was arrested and maltreated, before passing on to the picturesque bay and gulf of Gaeta, and to Capua, whose delights enervated Hannibal's army.

Naples itself, an ideally located seaport, the capital of the ancient kingdom bearing its name, calls for another stop as prolonged as circumstances permit. It is a populous, picturesque town, with countless mementos of a history covering nearly three thousand years. It has also fine museums and famous picture galleries, and aside from its own attractions and its macaroni and coral industries, is the best point from which one

can visit the royal palace and gardens of Caserta, drive along the cliff roads to the volcanic point where Pozzuoli is located, visit the cave of Posilipo, the temple of Serapis, the tomb of Virgil, the ruined amphitheatre, the sulphur springs at Solfatara, Lagus Lucrinus (whence oysters were procured for Lucullus' feasts), Baiæ, of which Horace exclaimed, "Nothing in the world can be compared with the lovely bay of Baiæ," Cape Misenum of classic fame, Monte di Procida, and farther on Cumæ, whence a Sibyl emitted famous oracles, and Lake Avernus, whose "easy descent" has become proverbial.

Out at sea, along this coast, are volcanic islands, of which Procida and Ischia are the most frequently visited, for the fishermen all along the narrow strip of coast known as "the Marina" are only too glad to eke out their small gains by rowing strangers to and fro. These fisherfolk are a most picturesque and frugal race, and it is very interesting to watch them bring oars, sails, and ropes out of caves hewn in the rocks, and deftly prepare and launch their boats.

By rowing out to Ischia, or by taking the steamboat which lands there at stated times, one can enjoy its beautiful walks, drives, and rides, including an ascent of the Epomeo, whence an exquisite view can be obtained on clear days.

Southward from Naples, along another of those wonderful roads hewn in the cliffs, you can go to the foot of Mt. Vesuvius, up which it is now possible to climb by means of an incline railway, and the guides permit you to approach the crater when there are no immediate indications of an eruption. Smoke by day and a fiery reflection by night are the usual indications of the volcanic forces, whose violent eruption in 79 A. D. buried the towns of Pompeii and Herculaneum under a deep layer of ashes and lava, which, fortunately for us, preserved them from the utter destruction which has overtaken too many remains of a like character.

Until 1592 every one believed that the two ancient cities had perished entirely, but even though traces were then



Faun of Praxiteles, Capitol, Rome  
pp. 46, 47, 55, 343, 421, 441



**Interior of Sistine Chapel, Vatican, Rome**

**pp. 17. 221**



found, it was only after 1713, when a peasant unearthed certain bronze utensils and statues, that Charles III ordered the beginning of the excavations which have been intermittently carried on ever since. A visit to Pompeii, and if feasible to Herculaneum also, will more than reward the tourist for any exertion it may cost, for in Pompeii he will see the ruins of ancient Roman houses, temples which have never been degraded to common modern uses, and the amphitheatre, whence the people fled in panic when destruction suddenly overtook their city.

Driving from Naples southward, you also come to Castellamare, and after many turns in the cliff road reach Sorrento, nestling amid orange and lemon groves on a picturesque promontory. From there you can best visit the charming island of Capri, with its triangle of caves, designated as the blue, green, and white grottos. This island, entirely aside from its spectacular grottos, is quite worthy of a visit, if not a prolonged stay. Those who are good sailors will enjoy circumnavigating it, while those who are fair climbers will find delights in rambling around it and ascending Mt. Solaro, to enjoy the extensive view along the coast from Salerno to Gaeta with glimpses of the distant Apennines.

Although the bay of Salerno is less fine than that of Naples, it is nevertheless a most delightful place to visit, and can be reached by train, after passing through fields of cotton and tobacco, and vineyards where the famous Salernian wine is still grown. From there, too, one can drive through desolate marshes to Pæstum, — devastated by the Saracens in the ninth century, — whose massive ruined temples, dedicated to Neptune and Ceres respectively, supply some of the finest specimens of Greek architecture now extant. From abandoned Pæstum, where roses once abounded, one can visit Amalfi, so charmingly perched on its cliffs, and in driving back to Naples along the shore, one has a series of wonderful views, while enjoying the sometimes overpowering fragrance of the lemon, orange, and oleander groves which abound along the southern coast.

Very few tourists have leisure to visit Calabria, — a mountainous region, occupied by a brigand-looking population, — which extends to Reggio, in the very tip of the great Italian boot. It is also rare that travellers skirt the curving gulf of Otranto, where Greek Sybaris once nestled, or, round the heel of the boot, where Otranto is situated. But those who are on their way to India often go from Rome direct to Brindisi, whence steamers sail at regular intervals for Bombay, *via* the Isthmus of Suez.

It is from Naples that one can best reach Sicily, for steamers ply daily to Palermo, Messina, or Syracuse. As Sicily is mountainous, and crowned by the lofty peak of Mt. *Ætna*, and as it is intersected by numerous rapid streams, it is an essentially picturesque country. Its fertility is such that it was alternately the granary of Carthage and Rome, and even now — after having been occupied for two and a half centuries by Saracens, by Normans, French, Spaniards, and English — it still has wonderful remains, at Palermo, Girgenti, Taormina, etc., showing traces of the various masters who have disputed its possession for about three thousand years.

With picturesque shores, an ideal climate, historical data enough to drive students mad, groves of lemon, orange, olive, and carob trees, chestnut trees showing fabulous circumferences (57 metres), mineral springs, sulphur mines, eel, tench, and mullet fisheries, Sicily has charms which every year attract increasing numbers of visitors. Some of these, finding Tunis so near, sail across to Africa to visit that city, while others prefer an excursion to Malta, now an English dependency, yet possessing such interesting mementos of the Knights of St. John (whose gallant defence of their island against the Turks is one of the most thrilling pages of history) that a sojourn there is delightful.

From Sicily also one can visit the Lipari Islands, once deemed the home of *Æolus*, god of the winds, and Stromboli, whose volcanic fire represented the infernal regions so graphically that returning crusaders fancied



Cathedral, Palermo, Sicily



Marina Grande, Island of Capri

p. 225

they saw the dead struggling in its flames. In fact, such was the vivid impression these flames produced, that a monk, having beheld them, prevailed upon the Pope to appoint All Souls' Day, for general intercession in behalf of the spirits of the departed.

### Italian Money Table

	Approximate values.	Abbreviations.	Metal.
1 centesimo . . . . .	= $\frac{1}{5}$ ct.	1 c.	copper.
2 centesimi . . . . .	= $\frac{2}{5}$ ct.	2 c.	copper.
5 centesimi (1 soldo) . . . . .	= 1 ct.	5 c.	copper.
10 centesimi (2 soldi) . . . . .	= 2 cts.	10 c.	copper.
20 centesimi (4 soldi) . . . . .	= 4 cts.	20 c.	nickel.
40 centesimi (8 soldi) . . . . .	= 8 cts.	40 c.	nickel.
100 centesimi or 1 lira . . . . .	= 20 cts.	1 l.	silver.
2 lire . . . . .	= 39 cts.	2 l.	silver.
5 lire . . . . .	= 98 cts.	5 l.	silver.

Coins issued before 1863 are refused.

Legal rate: 1 lira = 19.3 cts.

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## XIX

### HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

ALL the peninsula south of the Pyrenees was inhabited already in prehistoric times by the Iberians, a mysterious race, of whom traces can still be found among the Basques. The Celts, coming over the mountains, mingled with the Iberians, and formed a composite race, whose Druidic monuments still exist, and whom the Phœnicians encountered when they first landed here in the course of their maritime journeys. No authentic records of these times remain, but numbers of legends have been preserved, which are of great historical interest even if not based on absolute fact.

According to one legend, Hercules strayed as far as Southern Spain, where with one powerful wrench he tore the rocks apart, allowing the Mediterranean and Atlantic to mingle their waters for the first time. In fact, the great rocks on either side of the strait were known all through classical times as the "Pillars of Hercules," for another legend asserted that this Phœnician god had erected these memorials as a token that there was nothing beyond (*ne plus ultra*). These rocks form such a striking landmark that their emblem (two upright pillars connected by a scroll, on which the Latin motto "*ne plus ultra*" was inscribed) was long imprinted on Spanish coins, and now does duty as the dollar sign for the United States of America. A third tradition claims that the Phœnicians, wishing to go by sea to Cadiz (which they founded), dug a canal, which the rushing waters widened rapidly until it formed the present broad strait.

The Phœnicians, who began to trade with the Celtiberians as early as 1300 B. C., are said to have taught

them how to extract gold and silver from their mines. For this metal they exchanged their noted wares, coming to the trading-port they founded, — the Tarshish of Bible fame, — which was located very near Gibraltar.

The Phœnicians were soon followed by the Greeks, who, even before the famous siege of Troy, had already founded the city which we know best as Saguntum.

Tyre, whose destruction was foretold full five hundred years before it occurred in 332 B. C., was not to remain mistress of the Mediterranean forever, for another Phœnician city was gradually rising to take its place. This was Carthage (Tunis), on the north coast of Africa, which had been founded by Lissa or Dido, a cousin of the Jewish queen Jezebel. At the end of the first Punic War (264–241), Carthage, having lost Sardinia and Sicily, conceived the thought of annexing Spain, where Hamilcar soon founded Carthagera (New Carthage) and Barcelona. From there, this general proceeded to acquire as much territory as possible, and when his son threatened Saguntum, — which had long been abandoned by Greece, — the inhabitants implored the help of Rome. But the Eternal City sent no aid, and, after a fearful siege, Saguntum, which had endured nearly a thousand years, was so thoroughly destroyed that now only a few traces of its old walls can be found.

The fall of Saguntum so roused Rome that Scipio the younger was sent to Spain in haste. He took Carthagera by surprise, and, besides winning untold wealth, secured the friendship of the native hostages whom the Carthaginians had long held, by giving them their freedom. This was a wise move, for town after town now concluded alliances with Rome, and by 206 B. C. most of Iberia had become the Roman Province of Hispania.

The Phœnicians had been paramount in the peninsula for nearly a thousand years, their descendants the Carthaginians for about forty, and now the Romans were to occupy the country for some six hundred.

Still, Rome did not retain its footing there without effort, for while many towns voluntarily submitted others

resisted desperately, as is proved by the famous siege of Numantia (134 B. C.), a siege which still lives in popular legend as well as in history.

After the fall of this city the peninsula was ruled by Sertorius, who conquered Lusitania (Portugal), founding a university at Huesca, which still bears his name. Portugal, like Spain, had hitherto been occupied by Iberians, Celts, and Phoenicians, traces of whose sojourn there still abound.

In the civil war waged between Marius and Sulla, Sertorius zealously adhered to the former leader, and many battles were fought in Spain. This war was soon followed by that between Cæsar and Pompey, and when Augustus became emperor and "all the world was at peace," Spain, glad of a breathing spell, warmly welcomed her new master, who wisely established military colonies to hold the restive mountaineers in check, and founded Saragossa.

During the next four hundred years Spain became thoroughly Latinised, and it was then that all the Roman baths, circuses, aqueducts, temples, etc. were erected, whose ruins still attract and charm antiquarians and travellers. At that time Spain was one of the most cultivated and enlightened parts of the Roman world, and it gave birth to several emperors and to the classic Latin writers Seneca, Lucan, Martial, Quintilian, etc.

Spain was not, however, to remain in this state of prosperity much longer, for the Goths, after dividing into two great streams, entered Italy and Spain (410 A.D.). While the Ostrogoths sacked Rome and established their kingdom in Italy, the Visigoths settled in Southern Gaul, before passing over into Spain, whither, meantime, the Vandals preceded them, locating permanently in Andalusia (Vandalusia). During their sojourn in France the adaptive Visigoths rapidly became so Latinised that when they took possession of Spain and Portugal, their king (having married the emperor's sister Placidia) called himself a vassal of the Roman Empire.

We are told that the successor of Ataulf, first Visigoth

king, was slain in the famous battle of Châlons against Attila and the Huns, and that the next monarch, having conquered the remainder of the Spanish peninsula, planted there the famous Gothic kingdom which was to endure until 711, and of which traces still remain in Spanish language, customs, and laws.

The Gothic rulers, whose Gallic realm the Franks seized under pretext that "so fair a land should not belong to Arians," soon removed their capital to Seville and Toledo, whence, after the nation had become Catholic, Brunhild and Galswinthe went forth in turn to marry Clovis' descendants. In fact, royal alliances between France and Spain were quite frequent, even in those early years, and may be said to have continued to our day.

Royalty among the Goths was elective; still, when the laborer Wamba was informed that a holy man had learned in a vision that he was to be the next king, he naturally showed some incredulity and laughingly remarked: "I shall be King of Spain when my pole puts forth leaves!" As was the case with the rods of Aaron and of Joseph (husband of Mary), Wamba's pole budded and bloomed instantly, and the farmer, thus convinced by miracle, ruled the country wisely, until he finally retired into a monastery near Burgos, and like Charles V finished his life in penance and prayer.

There is a long list of kings during the three centuries of Gothic rule, before Rodrigo, the "last of the Goths" and the Spanish King Arthur, was crowned at Toledo in 709. It seems that an insult addressed to the daughter of Count Julian, one of his nobles, brought about the ruin of this monarch and the fall of the Gothic kingdom. The king, not knowing that Julian was aware of his baseness, sent him to guard Tangier, a fortress on the other side of the strait, bidding him soon send back hunting hawks for royal use. Julian grimly promised that he would send "such hawks as his master had never yet seen," a promise which he allegorically redeemed.

No sooner had Julian, "the Traitor," reached his post than he arranged to surrender it to the Saracens

under Musa — conqueror of a great part of North Africa — and helped Tarif, one of the Saracen (Saracen means Easterner) generals, to cross the strait. The name of this leader was, we are told, given to the place where he first set foot in Spain, and as customs were collected there at a later stage in history, the word "tariff" came into common use. The mountain near by was called Gebel el Tarik (Mountain of Tarik) after another Saracen leader, and this name was gradually modified to the now familiar Gibraltar.

The invaders spread from this point all over the country and pounced like hawks upon Roderick, who was defeated and drowned in the Guadalquivir. In a very short time the Saracens thus became masters of the kingdom which the Goths had ruled just three hundred years. Tarik's followers — who are almost indifferently called Berbers, Moors, Saracens, or Arabs — now determined to conquer all Europe as they had conquered all North Africa. Spain won, they crossed the Pyrenees and seized Southern France, but when they attempted to push on farther north they were definitely checked by Charles Martel, at the battle of Poitiers, or Tours (732). The Saracens, forced to be content with Spain, established themselves there, and were glad to welcome the last member of the Ommeyyad family, when he escaped from the murderous fury of the Abbassides in the East. They not only received him joyfully, but made him master of Cordova, where he and his descendants were to rule as caliphs, or sultans, during the next three hundred years.

The Saracens were not to hold Spain and Portugal quite unchallenged, however, for Charlemagne, grandson of Charles the Hammer, marched down there at the head of an army, with the avowed intention of driving the infidels back to Africa. This purpose could not, however, be accomplished, for a Saxon rebellion recalled him north, after he had won the strip of land north of the Ebro.

According to legend, Charlemagne left the rear-guard of his army in charge of his nephew Roland, who was

accompanied by his bosom friend Oliver. Either the Celtiberians (hereditary foes of the Franks) or the Saracens were lying in wait in the mountains, and while the army marched through the valley of Roncevaux, hurled down masses of rocks, and uprooted trees, which crushed Roland and all his gallant troop. This treachery was duly punished by Charlemagne, who never again had another opportunity to carry out his cherished plan and drive the Saracens out of Spain.

Dwelling in a delightful climate, in the midst of plenty, the Saracens grew effeminate in time, ceased to dream of conquests, and spent all their time beautifying their cities and houses, and cultivating poetry, music, and learning in all its branches. Meantime the Goths (many of whom prided themselves upon descending from their old kings, and hence claimed the title of *hidalgo* or *Don*, "gentleman"), had sullenly withdrawn to the north. Here they made common cause with the mountaineers, and gradually erected a line of forts to act as a barrier against the hated foes who had driven them out of their former homes. From these castles the land was in time to be known as Castile, and the poor but proud *hidalgos* are the ancestors of the genuine Spaniard of to-day. The *hidalgos* chose their own leaders, one of whom, Fernando, Count of Castile, became in time quite powerful. He not only guarded the frontier against Saracen inroads, but warred successfully against Leon and Aragon, two other Spanish kingdoms which had arisen in the north of the peninsula.

The Saracens, after having made of Cordova the fairest city in the world, and after having collected there all the treasures they could secure, saw their magnificent buildings sorely marred by civil war, wherein the Berbers, the brutal element of the population, gained the upper hand. But the dissension between Berbers and Moors, so fatal to Saracen power, proved a boon to the Christians, who made common cause against their foes when the Asturias, Leon, and Castile were united under the rule of Alphonso VI (1073).

Instead of remaining merely on the defensive, the Christians now assumed an aggressive attitude, and began to reconquer the cities their ancestors had lost nearly four hundred years before. King Alfonso was so brave, and so ably seconded by Rodrigo, — the Cid, hero of the Great Spanish Epic, — that the cruel Berbers were driven back to Africa, and the Moors were restricted first to Andalusia, and then to Granada, where, in spite of all further efforts, they were to remain nearly three centuries longer. During their sway Granada prospered greatly, and they built the wonderful Alhambra, which still bears witness to their artistic taste and architectural skill. As for the greater part of what we now call Portugal it was given in 1095, as reward for past services, to Henry of Burgundy, whose son Alfonso I became first king of Portugal in 1139, after the battle of Ourique.

The Christians, who viewed their campaign against the Moors as a Holy War or Crusade, meantime re-entered Toledo (1212), whence their ancestors had been driven five hundred years before, and were amazed to behold the splendour of their former capital. A few years later, Fernando III transferred his seat even farther south, settling in Seville, where he changed the mosque into a Catholic church. Here, in due time, this monarch was buried in a glass-sided receptacle, through which travellers can still peer at his crown, robe, and shrivelled remains.

It was by thus driving away the infidels and turning mosques into Christian churches that Spain earned the epithet "Catholic," which it still so proudly claims, and, had the Spaniards only continued their united efforts, there is no doubt that they would soon have recovered Granada also. Unfortunately, however, the kingdoms of Castile, Aragon, Navarre, and Portugal were all jealous of each other, and therefore inclined to interfere in one another's affairs. Civil wars prevented combined action, wars in which the French and English also interfered. But a part of this bickering culminated in the marriage of Isabella, Queen of Castile, and of Ferdinand of Aragon (1468), which united definitely two kingdoms, whose



combined forces were to be wisely employed by the royal couple to complete the conquest of Spain.

Ferdinand and Isabella were deeply engaged in this momentous enterprise when Columbus approached them with his apparently visionary projects. Little heed was therefore granted to the Genoese navigator, until, after a heroic defence, Granada surrendered, and Boabdil, "Last of the Moors," rode sadly out of his capital, while tears coursed down his swarthy cheeks. The struggle between Moors and Christians was over at last, having persisted during 781 years.

Isabella, having established the Inquisition under her confessor Torquemada, in hopes of keeping all her subjects true to the Roman Catholic Church, now gladly listened to proposals which seemed likely to open a new field for her missionary zeal, and, fired by the hope of converting the East, she offered to pledge her jewels to supply the necessary funds for the momentous voyage which was to bring glory and wealth to Spain, just as the discoveries of Henry the Navigator, Diaz, and Vasco da Gama were to bring Portugal also to the zenith of her power.

The result of this undertaking is too well known to be dwelt upon here, but the story of Isabella's sorrow at the death of her only son and heir, and of the marriage of her youngest daughter Catherine, first with Arthur, Prince of Wales, and then with Henry VIII of England, is less familiar to all. So is that of her older daughter, Crazy Joanna, as she is usually termed, who, being heiress of all her parents' wealth, was sought in marriage by the Archduke of Austria. Her son, and Isabella's grandson, Charles, not only inherited all Spain and the vast wealth of the New World, but could also claim the Netherlands, his father's estate. When the Emperor of Germany died, this Charles, Francis I of France, and Henry VIII of England, contended for the imperial crown, and when it was awarded to Charles V, the heir of Ferdinand and Isabella was master of all Southwestern and Central Europe (except France) as well as of the New World.

His wars with Francis I concern Italy and Germany far more than Spain, where he made only six brief visits, for he was, besides, deeply interested in trying to stamp out Protestantism in Germany and in conquering North Africa. Finally, weary of vain fighting, Charles V relinquished the imperial crown in 1556 to retire to a monastery, leaving the Netherlands, Spain, Naples, Sicily, and the American continent to his son.

Philip II doubtless inherited Isabella's religious propensities, for he not only maintained the Inquisition in Spain, and sent Alva to Flanders to check the spread of Protestantism there, but encouraged Catherine de Médicis to massacre the Huguenots in France (St. Bartholomew, 1572) and his wife, Mary I of England, to restore Catholicism in her realm. After her death he also manned the Great Armada, which, however, utterly failed in its avowed purpose, the conquest of England, then in the capable hands of his Protestant sister-in-law Elizabeth. Philip II, King of Spain and Portugal, builder of the Escorial, died within its walls in 1598; and his death marks the end of Spain's supremacy and the beginning of her gradual decline from the foremost position into which she had suddenly risen by the successful reigns of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the discovery of untold sources of wealth in the New World.

Although Spain now became poorer little by little, it took time before her great prestige was entirely gone. Her alliance continued to be eagerly sought by neighbouring royal houses, and Louis XIII of France was not only glad to marry a Spanish princess, but bestowed his sister's hand upon the prince whom Velasquez portrayed so skilfully, and who was to rule as Philip IV. It was shortly before these alliances were contracted that the last Moors were deported to Africa, a small number having been allowed to remain in the country until then. Their departure in 1609 also marks the end of the days of chivalry, which Cervantes' "Don Quixote" turned into such ridicule that its purpose and glory were for a time completely forgotten. Under this same king



The Alcazar and Palace of Charles V., Toledo  
pp. 233, 238, 248, 459



General View from the Giralda, Seville  
pp. 236, 468

Spain lost Portugal, which, since then (1640), has been almost uninterruptedly under the rule of the family of Braganza.

The reign of a worthless king's favourites further enfeebled Spain, which, after slight difficulties with France, signed the treaty of the Pyrenees, and gave the hand of Maria Theresa to Louis XIV. Although this princess formally resigned all her rights before leaving her native country, these rights were eagerly claimed, when, many years later, her brother died without issue (1700). Meantime, during the disastrous reigns of Philip IV and Carlos II, Spain was shorn of the seven United Provinces, which achieved their independence, and it lost, besides, Portugal, Jamaica, and sundry possessions which were ceded to France.

When Louis XIV joyfully declared that "the Pyrenees have ceased to exist," and sent his grandson to rule Spain in spite of all previous agreements, such jealousy and alarm were roused in England and Austria that they soon combined forces for the War of the Spanish Succession. Part of this famous struggle took place in Spain, — which now lost Gibraltar, — the remainder in Germany, where Marlborough and Prince Eugene triumphed over Louis XIV's armies at Blenheim, etc., and it was only when Louis solemnly promised that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united that the war ended with the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). Spain was now at peace, under the rule of her first Bourbon king, Philip V, but she had lost Sicily, Naples, Milan, Sardinia, and the Netherlands, not to mention England's share of the spoils of war, Gibraltar and the Minorcas.

The Bourbon dynasty had begun its rule in Spain with warfare and bloodshed. This rule, which was to prove anything but beneficial to the country, was to have evil consequences for other parts of the world also. For instance, the third representative of this race, a kind-hearted king who encouraged learning, forcibly expelled the Jesuits from Spain (1767) and thus turned them loose to spread their doctrines at will in the rest of the world.

Although shorn of many of her former possessions, Spain retained lands in America until 1803, when only Cuba and Porto Rico were left under her control. Because her vast American territories, Gibraltar, and the Minorcas had all fallen a prey to England, Spain owed this country a bitter grudge, and therefore watched with growing satisfaction every turn of the American Revolutionary War. She also took advantage of England's sore plight to make a new attempt to recover possession of Gibraltar, the key to the Mediterranean. But the English garrison defended itself heroically during four years, and Spain, after a futile effort to establish a republic, joined France in a new attempt to defeat England, only to meet with disaster off Cape Trafalgar.

It was shortly after this naval battle that Napoleon, taking advantage of a family dispute between Carlos and his son Ferdinand, compelled the former to abdicate, and after crowning the latter, invited him to Bayonne, where he was detained as a state prisoner, while Joseph Bonaparte mounted the vacant throne of Spain. French troops then overran all the peninsula, and the King of Portugal had to flee to Brazil, one of his colonies.

Such high-handed proceedings naturally incensed the Spaniards and Portuguese, who formed "Juntas," and siding now with their old foes the English, prepared to drive the French out of the peninsula. Thanks to Wellington's aid, they succeeded in putting Joseph to flight (1814) and restored the Braganzas and Ferdinand, notifying the latter, however, that he must subscribe to the Constitution that the Cortes had drawn up in 1812, which changed Spain from an absolute into a constitutional monarchy.

Ferdinand was so far from approving these revolutionary ideas that he gladly joined the "Holy Alliance" formed by Russia, Austria, and Prussia, with the avowed intention of "stamping out free institutions in the germ." But when the alliance manned a fleet to subdue the South American states which had broken away from Spain's control, the Monroe Doctrine effectually quashed



Ganymede and the Eagle,  
National Museum, Naples  
pp. 46, 47, 226, 343, 414, 421, 441



Castle of St. Angelo with St. Peter's, Rome  
pp. 63, 221, 460



the scheme. Besides, the plan did not even have the hearty approval of the Spaniards, many of whom felt that it was opposed to the new Constitution, to which Ferdinand was compelled to adhere. In vain a French army marched down into Spain to restore things on the old basis ; the hands on the clock of progress could not be permanently turned back.

During all these turmoils the Absolutists and Liberalists formed parties, upheld respectively by the king and by his brother Carlos. This was the first of the many " Carlist " troubles, — troubles which have since kept Spain in constant hot water, and which were further intensified when Ferdinand died, leaving only a daughter to inherit his crown. The Carlists pleaded the Salic Law, but in spite of their continual plots, Isabella reigned, until, disgusted by her utter lack of principle, the Spaniards drove her out of the country in 1868.

The Cortes now offered the crown to Amadeo, second son of the King of Italy, but he was only too glad to resign it again three years later, when it was bestowed upon Isabella's son, Prince Alfonso, a youth of seventeen. This young monarch, losing his beloved young wife Mercedes after five months' marriage, espoused Christina, an Austrian archduchess, whose oldest child received the dead queen's name.

The reign of King Alfonso XII was all too brief, and when he passed away his little daughter temporarily filled the throne, making way, however, for her brother, Alphonso XIII, who came into the world five months after his father's demise.

Under the regency of his mother Christina, this young monarch has reaped some of the evil seed his predecessors had sown, thus losing Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines in the Spanish American War of 1898. But since then, Spain has vigorously undertaken the work of her own reform and reconstruction, a work which already shows promising results.

Portugal also is progressing rapidly, and the court is again established at Lisbon, the house of Braganza

having vacated the throne of Brazil in 1831 and returned to Portugal after an absence of twenty-four years. The present ruler is Charles I of Portugal.

## Chronology of Spain and Portugal

B. C.

- Iberians occupy Peninsula, mix with Celtic invaders, and form Celtiberian race.
- c. 1100 Phœnicians found Cadiz.
- 900 First Roman colony.
- 238-200 Carthaginian dominion.
- 205 B.C.-414 A.D. Roman dominion.
- 409 Vandal, Suevi, Alan invasion.
- 411-711 Visigoth dominion, 33 kings.
- 586-601 Recared renounces Arianism. First Catholic king of Spain.
- 711 Moors enter Spain. Battle of Guadalete.
- 718-1027 Kings of Asturias and Leon.
- 755-1031 Independent Caliphate of Cordova.
- 873-1512 Kings of Navarre.
- 1035-1504 Kings of Leon and Castile.
- 1035-1479 Kings of Aragon.
- 1087-1157 The Almoravides rule all Moorish Spain.
- 1157-1212 The Almohades rule all Moorish Spain.
- 1195 Moors *vs.* Alfonso VIII of Castile at Alarcos.
- 1212 Moors *vs.* Alfonso VIII of Castile at Las Navas de Tolosa. The Cid.
- 1226-1492 Moorish rule in Granada only.
- 1479 Castile and Aragon united.
- 1479-1516 Ferdinand and Isabella.
- 1492 Conquest of Granada. Inquisition in all Spain. Discovery of America.
- 1501-1609 Last Moors leave Spain.
- 1504 Conquest of Naples and Sicily.
- 1516-1556 Charles I (Emperor Charles V), son of Joanna

A. D.

- and grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella.
- 1525 Battle of Pavia. Captivity of Francis I.
- 1535 Capture of Tunis.
- 1556-1598 Philip II. Era of greatest power.
- 1568 Insurrections in Netherlands.
- 1571 Battle of Lepanto.
- 1580 Occupation of Portugal.
- 1588 Destruction of Spanish Armada.
- 1598-1621 Philip III.
- 1616 Death of Cervantes.
- 1621-1665 Philip IV.
- 1640 Loss of Portugal.
- 1648 Independence of Netherlands recognised.
- 1659 Peace of Pyrenees. Royal marriages.
- 1665-1700 Charles II, last Hapsburg king of Spain.
- 1668 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
- 1678 Peace of Nimwegen.
- 1688-1697 War *vs.* France. Peace of Ryswick.
- 1701-1746 Philip V first Bourbon.
- 1701-1714 War of Spanish Succession. Spain *vs.* Austria.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken by British.
- 1746-1759 Ferdinand VI.
- 1759-1788 Charles III.
- 1767 Jesuits expelled.
- 1779-1783 Great siege of Gibraltar.
- 1788-1808 Charles IV.
- 1792-1795 War with France.
- 1796-1802 France and Spain *vs.* England. Cape St. Vincent. Peace of Amiens.
- 1805 Spain and England *vs.* France. Trafalgar.
- 1808 Charles IV abdicates. Ferdinand VII relinquishes throne.

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| <p>A.D.<br/> 1808-1813 Joseph Bonaparte.<br/> 1808-1814 Peninsular War.<br/> Spain and England vs.<br/> France. Battles of Co-<br/> runna, Talavera, Albuera,<br/> Salamanca, Vitoria; Sara-<br/> gossa siege, Gerona, Cadiz,<br/> Badajoz, Valencia, Ciudad<br/> Rodrigo.<br/> 1813-1833 Ferdinand VII.<br/> 1814 French expelled.<br/> 1820-1823 Civil War. French in-<br/> terfere.<br/> 1830 Abolition of Salic Law in<br/> favor of heiress Isabella.</p> | <p>A.D.<br/> 1833-1870 Isabella II. Regency<br/> of queen-mother.<br/> 1834-1839 First Carlist War.<br/> Don Carlos wants throne.<br/> 1859-1860 War with Morocco.<br/> 1868 Revolution. Isabella ex-<br/> pelled. Provisional gov-<br/> ernment.<br/> 1870-1873 Amadeus (of Italy)<br/> elected. Resigns.<br/> 1872-1876 Second Carlist War.<br/> 1874-1885 Alfonso XII (son of<br/> Isabella).<br/> 1886- Alfonso XIII. Queen-<br/> mother regent.</p> |
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## *Portugal.*

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| <p>Under Phœnician, Cartha-<br/> ginian, Roman, Visigoth,<br/> Moorish rule, like Spain.<br/> 1140 Henry of Burgundy becomes<br/> King of Portugal.<br/> 1140-1385 House of Burgundy.<br/> Nine kings.<br/> 1385-1580 House of Aviz. Eight<br/> kings.<br/> 1580-1640 Under Spanish do-<br/> minion. Three kings.<br/> 1640 The house of Braganza.<br/> 1640-1656 John IV.<br/> 1656-1683 Alfonso VI.<br/> 1683-1706 Pedro II.<br/> 1706-1750 John V.</p> | <p>1750-1777 Joseph I.<br/> 1755 Great Earthquake at<br/> Lisbon.<br/> 1777-1816 Maria I (and Pedro<br/> III).<br/> 1815 Union with Brazil.<br/> 1816-1826 John VI (Regent 1791-<br/> 1816).<br/> 1826 Pedro IV abdicates.<br/> 1826-1828 Maria II.<br/> 1828-1834 Miguel usurper. Civil<br/> War.<br/> 1833-1853 Maria II restored.<br/> 1853-1861 Pedro V.<br/> 1861-1889 Luis I.<br/> 1889- Carlos I.</p> |
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## XX

### TRAVEL IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

THE English-speaking tourist, according to the season of his point of departure, generally reaches Spain either from the extreme north or south. Entering the country by crossing the Bidassoa, — the historic stream where so many royal exchanges of prisoners and brides have taken place, — we step into the Basque provinces, noted for their snow-clad mountains, their hardy, picturesque population, the richly wooded slopes of their foothills, and the fertility of their valley basins, where the vine is successfully cultivated. It is in the Basque provinces that lovers of sport can view to best advantage the national ball game (*el Juego de Pelota*), which the Basques play to perfection, and which steels their muscle and trains their eye, so that they are considered the most redoubtable of the Spanish soldiers.

All the northwest coast of Spain is wonderfully picturesque and most interesting for those who like to wander in remote places. Here we find Corunna, — an old Phœnician trade settlement and the site of the bloody battle between the French and English in the course of which Sir John Moore was slain, — and at some distance inland the shrine of Santiago di Compostella, where the apostle St. James lies buried, if we are to believe the current legend, and where hundreds of thousands of pilgrims have prayed at his grave ever since. Santiago, as the Spaniards call St. James, is patron saint of Spain, and his cathedral is considered the most important monument of early Romanesque architecture in the country. After admiring the decorations of this edifice inside and out, the cloister, archiepiscopal palace, convents, and university, all offer attractions, while the

churches in the surrounding country are sufficiently picturesque to deserve visiting also. From there you can go by rail to Vigo, a bathing-resort with admirable climate, and famous for the naval battle of 1702, when the English sank many galleons laden with silver from Peru. The steep streets, the fishing population, and the mountain drives around there are all extremely interesting.

Most travellers, however, find travelling in Spain too difficult to venture far from beaten tracks; so the majority who land at Santander or St. Sebastian — the two northern seaports of greatest importance — are only too prone to pass by such interesting places as Bilbao and Vitoria and hurry on to Burgos (the ancient capital of Old Castile, and the home of the Cid), there to view the magnificent Gothic cathedral, which was founded early in the thirteenth century, and took no less than three hundred years to reach completion. Every part of this edifice deserves special notice, as do the cloisters, and the chapel, where the celebrated "Chest of the Cid" is one of the curiosities exhibited to visitors. After admiring the other interesting churches, and the castle, which commands a fine view of the city, there are pleasant excursions to be made to various convents in the neighbourhood, in one of which the Cid and his Ximena lie buried.

The next famous stopping-place is Valladolid, whose cathedral, university, and royal palace pale in interest only before the church of Santa Maria la Antigue. This city is further of importance because it was here that Christopher Columbus died, in 1506, in a house which now bears an inscription to commemorate that fact.

From Valladolid to Zamora, — one of the frontier fortresses against the Moors, — and from there to Salamanca of Black Letter fame, enables the traveller to pass through a picturesque mountainous region, where beautiful views abound. In Salamanca the golden-brown buildings, the cathedral, university, turnkey's tower, and well-preserved Roman bridge are only a few of the



Cathedral Choir, Burgos  
p. 246



St. Elizabeth of Hungary, Murillo, Madrid  
pp. 24, 248, 412



objects which will claim your attention. From there, by a rather roundabout way, you can reach Segovia, a bit of the middle ages, with turreted ramparts, huge towers and belfries, a Roman aqueduct still in use, the cathedral, and the royal palace or Alcazar, built by Alfonso VI, where Isabella was proclaimed Queen of Castile in 1474. From Segovia to San Ildefonso and La Granja is a pleasant jaunt which enables the traveller to see what are reputed as the finest fountains in Europe, while enjoying the cool breezes of a high altitude. "As the crow flies" it is not very far from Segovia to Avila, a Roman town, with great ramparts which were erected in 1090-1099, a town which proved a bone of contention between the Moors and Christians, for it was then one of the most important places of Spain. Its cathedral has many excellent points, as well as its principal churches, and from this city it is easy to make excursions in the mountains with proper preparations and guides.

Avila is on one of the railroads which centre in Madrid, where visitors can enjoy all the gay life of the capital, and, if they happen to be there at the right season, view the characteristic celebrations of Twelfth Night (January 6), St. Anthony's Day (January 17), the Children's Masked Ball during Carnival, or, during Holy Week, attend services in the principal churches, see the grand religious procession on Good Friday, and hear all the bells of the city peal out the glorious tidings that "Christ is risen" on Saturday morning.

The procession in May, that of Corpus Christi in June, and the church fairs in July and August, all attract great crowds of peasants and pilgrims, thus giving the city a peculiarly festive appearance. On All Souls' Day processions visit the cemeteries to deck the graves, while on the last Saturday before Advent the papal envoy, duly escorted by municipal officers, drummers, etc., reads aloud a papal decree issued by Julius II, granting the same indulgences to Spaniards as were made to crusaders in the days of Urban II.

It is also an unusual experience to attend the midnight Mass on Christmas Eve, and to view the fair held in the city at that season. The churches, palaces, university, etc. are all very attractive, but art-lovers always think of the magnificent collections of paintings, for it is here that Murillo is seen in all his glory, and that Spanish art can be studied with the best results. But the Prado and other museums are too well known to require any further mention here, for travellers always devote all the time they can spare to these grand galleries, which besides paintings contain sculptures, drawings, engravings, armour, etc., etc. As for Madrid's parks and botanical gardens they are as fine as the severe climate will permit.

It is from Madrid that excursions are generally made to the palace and monastery of the Escorial, built by Philip II in the shape of a gridiron in honour of St. Lawrence, and which is well worth a leisurely visit. From Madrid also one can visit the royal castle of Aranjuez on the Tagus, and enjoy its wonderful shade, fantastic gardens, and graceful fountains. The next point of great interest is Toledo, perched on a rocky height by the Tagus, and considered one of the most ancient and famous of the Spanish cities. Owing to the fact that it was long occupied by Jews and Moors, it bears a distinctly oriental character, and its crooked streets, great gates, and Roman, Gothic, and Saracen remains exercise a considerable fascination upon even casual visitors. The great sights are the Cathedral with its treasures, the Old Hospital of Santa Cruz, the bridge which spans the Tagus, the horse-shoe arched Gate of the Sun, the churches, synagogues, and last, but not least, its famous Alcazar or citadel.

Those who have plenty of leisure, and who are not afraid of roughing it, would doubtless enjoy paddling down the Tagus from Toledo to Lisbon, at the mouth of the river, passing thus through a little-visited portion of Spain, and enjoying much local colour by the way, besides slanting down across the whole width of Portugal.

In the northern part of this country, among the highlands of Braganza, there are many interesting out-of-the-way places to visit, but aside from Oporto on the Douro — noted for its great exportation of port wine — the only other town of first magnitude along the Atlantic coast is Lisbon.

In early spring the Portuguese coast is particularly attractive to strangers, who can find cool places in the mountains and by the sea even during the summer, when as a rule the main part of the country seems parched. Lisbon itself, the capital of the kingdom, is considered so beautiful that there is a popular saying to the effect that "he who has not seen Lisbon has seen nothing." Aside from its terraced wooded location, its cleanliness and antiquity, Lisbon has fine churches and museums, interesting aqueducts, promenades, cemeteries, and art treasures which would deserve far more than passing notice. Its suburb, Alcantara, the picturesque Belem, with its beautiful tower guarding the mouth of the river, and its quaint convent now transformed into an orphanage, are places wherein to beguile some hours, at least, in studying their charms.

It is from Lisbon also that most people start for a visit to Cintra, taking in as many of the sights by the way as time and strength will permit. At Cintra itself, amid oaks and pines, you will find a royal palace, and from thence on donkey-back you can climb up to a mediæval and next to a Moorish castle, both of which are reached in the right season after passing through thickets of flowering camellias, rhododendrons, and araucarias. Should you care to push on farther, there are other villas and castles to visit in this direction, and by scaling the cliff known in English as the Rock of Lisbon, you can flatter yourself that you are standing upon the westernmost point of Continental Europe, while enjoying the sight of the Atlantic waves dashing at its foot. There are many other places of moment to visit in little-travelled Portugal, and it is quite easy besides to sail from Lisbon, rounding Cape St. Vincent, where famous naval battles were fought,

to Huelva in Spain, landing at La Rabida, where Columbus begged bread for his son, or at Cadiz, connected with the earliest historical records of the country.

The city walls, the Academy of Fine Arts, the Archæological Museum, the promenade with its view of the rocks, and the lighthouse of San Sebastian are all interesting in their way, and when we remember that the cathedral occupies the site of a Phœnician temple and of a Roman citadel, we realise that Cadiz was making history about two thousand years before America was discovered.

From Cadiz to Gibraltar, with its famous fortifications, we can also go by sea, passing thus between the Pillars of Hercules, along the strait which this stronghold so effectively commands that it is said no vessel could slip through if England chose to arrest its course. The wonders of Gibraltar must be seen to be understood, and when we have read of the numerous sieges it has sustained since the dawn of history, we gaze upon it with still greater awe and wonder. Gibraltar rock and promontory alone is English soil, for after the strip of neutral ground is passed you find yourselves in Spain, in the province best known as Estramadura, the extreme land. Directly opposite Gibraltar, on the same bay, is the picturesquely located town of Algeciras, founded by the Moors, and now important as the point whence Gibraltar and Tangiers, on the African coast, can best be reached.

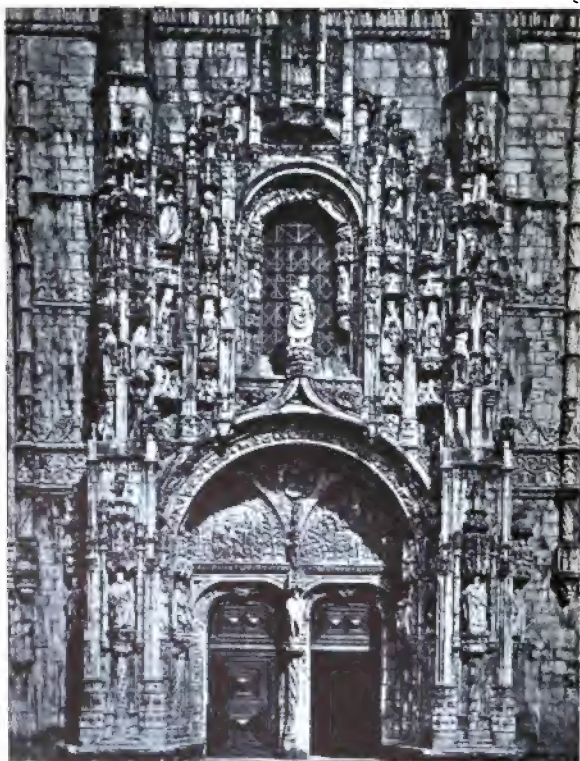
From Algeciras also, one can easily sail to Malaga, — famous for the flavour of its grapes and wine, — an industrial centre fast becoming a fashionable winter resort on account of its delightful climate. Its promenade, cathedral, lighthouse, and English cemetery are all points which strangers like to visit ere taking the train for Granada, the last stronghold of the Moors in Spain, and the point whence they were driven by Ferdinand and Isabella just before Columbus was commissioned to sail in quest of a western road to India.

The picturesque location of Granada, with the famous



Castello da Pena, Court of the Chapel, Cintra

p. 249



Monastery of St. Jeronimus, Belem, Portugal  
p. 249

Alhambra perched above it, is only one of its many charms, for its climate, flowers, Moorish architecture, quaint streets, and collections of antiquities and art are too often mentioned not to attract due attention from all who are privileged to visit this enchanting spot. In the cathedral we find among other famous monuments those of Ferdinand and Isabella, who rest side by side in the city which they recovered after it had been in the hands of unbelievers seven hundred years.

There is much in Granada that is almost unchanged, and the stranger, familiar with its annals, as lovingly written by Washington Irving and others, will wander about the city, palace, and fortress, linger in the beautiful courts with their tinkling fountains, the halls where ambassadors were received, where the Abencerrages were murdered, or where justice was meted out, and the dainty chambers once occupied by beautiful princesses. The underground passages, cellars, and baths, the imposing walls and gateways, and in particular the magnificent views which you obtain from every window or point of vantage, could easily afford material for as many months of admiring study as the average tourist can spend hours in examining the most wonderful of the many beautiful things in Spain.

Granada is also often reached from Almeria, a seaport founded by the Phœnicians in the southeastern part of Spain, and one of the great harbours during the period of Roman occupation. Its Roman, Gothic, and Moorish remains are all of great interest, and its delightful climate makes it an ideal place wherein to spend the winter, watching the people whose principal occupation seems to be fruit-growing; for here grapes, almonds, lemons, oranges, bananas, and date-palms can be seen in all their tropical luxuriance of growth. Carthagina, still a flourishing seaport, Alicante, famous for its wines, and Valencia are all interesting points on the west coast, where between the two first-named cities you also find Murcia. These centres are all connected by railway, and from thence by more or less roundabout ways one

can reach Granada, Madrid, or any of the large cities of the picturesque Iberian peninsula.

From Granada, also by a detour, you can reach Cordova, the capital of the Moorish Empire during the earlier part of the Saracens' sojourn in Spain, before any of their conquests had been recovered by Christian warriors.

Cordova is another of those places to which one looks forward eagerly, and from which the antiquarian parts with lingering regret, for it offers so many attractions that it is impossible to exhaust them all, even in a much more prolonged visit than most foreigners can make. Its many reminders of a glorious past bring a tinge of melancholy which has a peculiar charm, and the exquisite views of the peaks of the Sierra Morena, the winding Guadalquivir, and the beautiful gardens make it a desirable resort for artists or those in quest of beauty and quaintness.

Every one has heard of the cathedral of Cordova, "the largest and most noble monument of the religious architecture of the Arabs of Spain," which was long a mosque and is now a place of Christian worship. Winding streets lead from there to the Alcazar, or town fortress, part of which served as a prison during the Inquisition; and from there one can easily find one's way to an old Moorish bridge spanning the river, and visit the various churches and private houses which have attractions for strangers. It is also possible to make excursions to various picturesque points and convents in the mountains, and, among other places of interest, to the site of the celebrated Medinat az Zahra, the dream-palace built for Abderahman III's favourite, — a place which cost more than fifty million pounds and which must have outshone even the Alhambra.

While those who are unfamiliar with the language will do well not to stray from beaten tracks where interpreters are more or less available, those who are familiar with Spanish and the ways of the country will find the untrodden paths most fascinating, especially if they



prefer human nature to ruins and scenery to works of art. There are any number of picturesque regions in Spain where local colour abounds, and as the country is mountainous, it is possible to spend the summer in cool regions and the winter in the land where the orange blooms, without leaving the peninsula.

From Valencia we can travel northward either by boat or by train to a port near the mouth of the Ebro, or Barcelona, or Tarragona, whence by railway we can also reach the inland town of Saragossa, a place famous for its pilgrimages, bull and cock fights, and its sieges; for it resisted heroically when beleaguered by Suevi, Franks, Moors, Castilians, English, French, etc., in turn. To appreciate the city and its interesting relics, a knowledge of its history is indispensable; but without preparation of any kind one can enjoy its beautiful location, picturesque features, and take an interest in the shrine which has attracted such hosts of pilgrims in the past, and before which devout people still kneel in throngs. The "Madonna of the Pillar," who is supposed to have appeared here to St. James, is one of the "miracle Virgins," and pilgrimages to her shrine are therefore quite as frequent as to that of St. James of Compostella.

From Saragossa or any of the northern seaports one can easily visit Lerida with its old cathedral, Mouzon, and Huesca, whence a railway reaches to Jacà at the foot of the great Pyrenean mountain chain.

This great barrier, as yet unpierced by such tunnels as bore through the Alps, can be avoided by taking the railway line along either the eastern or western coast. But travellers who delight in the picturesque will find several fine roads over the passes, where carriages, stage-coaches, horses, and mules abound, and any number of winding paths frequented by peasants, smugglers, and goat-herds, who, for a consideration, are often ready to serve as guides.

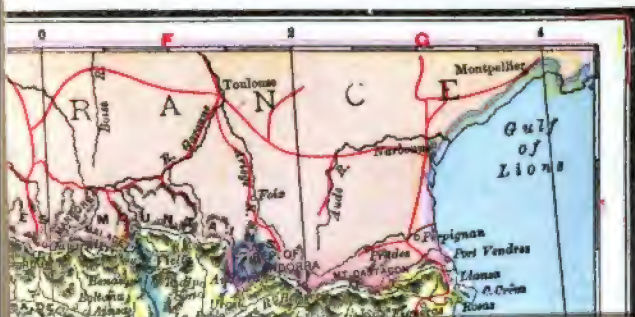
From Barcelona one can visit Montserrat, famous as the monastery where Ignatius Loyola, founder of the Society of Jesus or of the Jesuits, was converted (1521),

or, by taking the railway northward, reach the terminus of the line at any one of the junctions with the great post-roads leading over the mountain.

Between two of these great roads, and reached from Spain only on horseback, we find the little mountain republic of Andorre, with its quaint town and the famous charters dating back to the days of Charlemagne and of his son. This mountain republic can be reached by any one of its six valleys, or over the passes, where one can study mountaineers, lumbermen, and shepherds in their primitive homes. One post-road which passes through Lerida comes out on the French side of the Pyrenees, at Bagnères de Bigorre, running through the wonderful valley of Aran, while that which leaves Jaca and ends at Oloron affords beautiful glimpses of Mt. Perdu and of the Pic du Midi.

By railway from Saragossa one can also go northward into Navarre, visiting Pampeluna, one of the most ancient of the northern cities of Spain and noted for the part it has played in history. Then, on leaving this "key to Navarre," with its Sarasate Museum, — dear to all musicians and especially to violinists, — one can make an excursion to the famous pass of Roncesvalles (or Roncevaux), where the echo of Roland's horn is still supposed to linger after more than a thousand years, and where peasants point out the mountain he hacked in his vain efforts to break his sword (Durendale) so that it should not fall into the hands of his enemies.

There are many other places through or over which one can pass from Spain into France; and the traveller in quest of sport, health, or fine views cannot do better than explore this region, provided he can dispense with modern hotels, and certain creature-comforts which are not obtainable in this little-travelled region.



1. The first part of the report is a general statement of the results of the investigation.

2. The second part of the report is a detailed description of the methods used in the investigation.

3. The third part of the report is a discussion of the results of the investigation.

4. The fourth part of the report is a conclusion.

5. The fifth part of the report is a list of references.

6. The sixth part of the report is a list of figures.

7. The seventh part of the report is a list of tables.

8. The eighth part of the report is a list of appendices.

9. The ninth part of the report is a list of footnotes.

10. The tenth part of the report is a list of errata.

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## XXI

### HISTORY OF BELGIUM AND HOLLAND

THE triangle between France, Germany, and the ocean, now about equally divided between Belgium and Holland, once formed a single country, which, owing to its position, was called the Lowlands or the Netherlands.

The alluvium carried by the rivers and deposited in the sea at their mouths formed shoals and marshes on which, as they gradually emerged from the surrounding waters, human beings made their homes. These primitive inhabitants whose bone and stone weapons have been found in the lower strata of mounds, probably began to assist nature by building dykes to shut out the sea, and to prevent the three great rivers which end there from continually flooding the land.

Men of the stone age were followed by Celtic tribes, whose Druidical remains still excite our wonder, and by the time Julius Cæsar appeared on the scene, Belgiæ and Batavians — the ancestors of the Belgians and Dutch — were influential tribes. When the Romans conquered the land, they introduced some of their civilization, building roads, digging the first canal, and erecting fortified camps, which later developed into towns like Utrecht.

Still, the liberty-loving natives did not submit without protest, — as is proved by the revolt of Civilis, — and it was only gradually that the wilder element in the north could be entirely subdued. After holding this conquest for about three hundred years, the Romans began to withdraw before the inroads of Teutonic tribes, chief of which were the long-haired Franks. These barbarians settled in the Lowlands, where they introduced their customs, and whence they were soon to invade

and conquer Gaul. It was early in the fifth century, and during Frank occupation, that the first Irish monks came to this region to preach Christianity, proceeding only slowly, for the work of conversion was not finished until the ninth century, when Charlemagne compelled the Frisians to receive baptism. Still, while Charlemagne thus resorted to force to suppress paganism, he nevertheless respected people's rights, for he granted to the Frisians the charter known as the Asega Book. It is even from the Frisian language that we get our word "book," as well as many other common terms, for the Frisians and the Anglo-Saxons were of kindred race.

Charlemagne also appointed counts to mete out justice, and dukes to guard the frontiers against further inroads, not only from the usual Teutonic raiders, but from the piratical Northmen, or Vikings, who soon after his death were to ravage the Netherlands as well as almost all the western coast of Europe. These Norman incursions not only determined the construction of castles and walled cities, but furthered the growth and spread of feudalism, the common people being only too glad to do vassal duty in exchange for the protection fortified places afforded in time of danger.

After raiding the Netherlands, the Normans settled in the northern part of the country, where in time they mingled with the Frisians, although at first treating them merely as slaves. During all this time the country had nominally been first under the rule of the Merovingian, and then of the Carolingian Franks. But when the Treaty of Verdun was signed, and Charlemagne's vast empire was divided, the Netherlands formed part of the middle kingdom known as Lorraine, until it was divided and the northern half annexed to the German Kingdom. It is to the Treaty of Verdun and to this subsequent division, that historians attribute the difference in language, customs, etc., for Belgium is as distinctly French as Holland is Teutonic.

France and Germany both came under the rule of Charles III the Simple, who bestowed Normandy upon



the Normans, and upon Dirk, one of his noblemen, the county of Holland. For nearly four hundred years thereafter, the direct descendants of this nobleman were lords of this region, which they extended by annexing Zeeland, and greatly improved in sundry ways. During the rule of this first dynasty of counts sundry floods occurred, and the Crusade movement took place wherein people from this section took their full share. In fact, the leaders of several of the Crusades hailed from the Netherlands, and won undying renown, not only by land but also by sea, and one expedition sailed directly from Holland to Damietta, which was taken by the Dutch in 1219.

Pilgrims and crusaders brought back from these expeditions new knowledge, new ideas, new wares, and new sports. Ships which left laden with crusaders, returned burdened with spices, silks, and all manner of Eastern products, which Dutch skippers sold at such profit that maritime commerce soon became a great source of wealth for the country. This trading having brought the Netherland seamen into conflict with Norman and Barbary corsairs, made them perceive the advantage there would be in joining the Hanseatic League.

The Crusades, which gave such an impetus to commerce, also hastened the rise and development of the cities or communes, many of which secured charters, in exchange for funds to enable their overlord to join those expeditions. The earliest Netherland charter now extant is that of Middleburg, which bears the date of 1253, and is therefore a very important national document.

The cities, thus freed from vassalage, were ever ready to fight in defence of their hard-earned liberties. In order to do so, walls had to be maintained in good repair, and all citizens trained to bear arms. Besides, in free cities, where industries rapidly developed, trade-guilds were formed, which rivalled each other not only in the splendour of the houses where they were wont to assemble, but also in devotion to their native town. In fact, loyalty to one's city was the only form of patriotism

then known ; and as this loyalty was often of an aggressive character, quarrels between cities were just as frequent and bitter as between rival lords or even rival bishops.

In the middle of the fourteenth century, when the direct line of the counts of Holland became extinct, the counties of Holland and Zeeland were added to that of Hainault, farther south, and before long a dispute arose between the heiress of these lands and her son. In this quarrel the people took sides, calling themselves the "cods" and the "hooks," and as party bitterness did not vent itself in mere words, civil war ensued. Germany and England became involved in this quarrel to a certain extent, for princesses of Hainault had married into both reigning families. Still, this family also soon became extinct, and then its estates passed into the hands of the Bavarians, who were to hold them during seventy-nine years. The Bavarian lords came into collision with the Frisians and with the Ghent citizens, the result of their divisions being that the last Bavarian count died so deeply in debt that his widow appeared in public, clad in borrowed raiment, and laid a straw upon his coffin, in token that she was quite destitute and could not meet his obligations.

To this epoch also belongs the romantic tale of Jacqueline, heiress of Hainault, Holland, and Friesland. Married at fifteen to a French Dauphin, who died so suddenly that he is supposed to have been poisoned, this young widow was despoiled by her uncle, the Bishop of Liège, whom the Pope released from his vows and allowed to marry. But as Jacqueline and her people were not willing to be thus defrauded and appropriated, civil war ensued between the partisans of uncle and niece. Jacqueline's estates were, in fact, well worth fighting for, because the introduction of windmills in a land too level to furnish any water power, and the discovery of a process whereby herrings could be smoked, and fish cured by salting, had opened up sources of wealth which greatly enriched the people.

In hopes of saving this patrimony, Jacqueline married

in haste her young cousin, the Duke of Brabant, but led such a miserable life with him that she finally ran away from home, and passing over sea took refuge at the English court. There Jacqueline met Duke Humphrey, the king's brother, and yielding to his persuasions, accepted as valid a divorce pronounced by the anti-pope, and consented to marry him. Duke Humphrey immediately proceeded with her to the Netherlands, where meantime Jacqueline's discarded husband and uncle had been waging civil war over the possession of her estates.

Humphrey's efforts to recover Hainault and Holland were so far from successful that he soon returned to England, forsaking his wife, who was captured at Mons, and handed over to the tender mercies of her opponents. But this spirited lady effected her escape from Ghent disguised as a page, and while vainly awaiting the return of Duke Humphrey with an army, amused herself with athletic games, for which she had a particular liking. After some time Jacqueline learned with dismay that Duke Humphrey had elected to consider their marriage invalid and to take unto himself an English wife. As, meantime, her former husband and uncle had both passed away, naming the Duke of Burgundy heir to their claims, the poor lady now found herself pitted against one of the most powerful princes of the age. Her resistance against such a foe proved vain, for she was not only robbed of her lands, but compelled besides to promise that she would not marry again without the Duke of Burgundy's consent.

Poor Jacqueline, thus shorn of possessions and personal liberty, withdrew to Goes, where we are told she amused herself by moulding, gilding, and decorating the soft clay of Borselen, — clay now commonly known as porcelain. While thus beguiling her hours, Jacqueline met Francis van Borselen, — whom Philip of Burgundy had appointed stadtholder or lieutenant of the land, — and, forgetting all promises, consented to marry him. The marriage no sooner became known to Philip of Burgundy, however, than he seized his stadtholder, and

refused to spare his life unless Jacqueline relinquished in behalf of Burgundy all claims to her estates.

Thus forced either to resign all or to see the man she loved executed, Jacqueline yielded, but, when she died of consumption a few years later, she mournfully cried, "My whole life has been a disappointment."

Jacqueline having died childless, the Netherlands, which had been visited by the famous "St. Elizabeth Flood," wherein one hundred thousand persons had lost their lives, became henceforth undisputed part of the estates of the Duke of Burgundy, who was then far richer and more powerful than the kings of France and Germany, his neighbours.

For a time it seemed as if this new accession of land and wealth would actually enable the Duke to carry out his pet scheme and make of Burgundy a middle kingdom — as it had once been — extending from the ocean to the Mediterranean Sea, and including the Netherlands, Lorraine, Burgundy, Switzerland, and Provence. This plan, however, was not to be realised. Shortly after the Duke of Burgundy had married a Portuguese princess at Bruges, the Netherlands, incensed by new taxes and by being deprived of some of their charters, openly rebelled. There were now some two hundred walled cities in this region, three-fourths of these being in the southern section, where large and thriving factories had been established, and where cloth, lace, linen, jewelry, and armour were manufactured in great quantities and exported to all parts of the civilized world.

The people of Ghent, in particular, resented the tyranny of the new government, but their rebellion was put down with a high hand by the Duke, Philip the Bold, whose example of exaction and cruelty was duly followed by his son and successor Charles. The Netherlands were, therefore, not at all sorry to see this prince beaten by the Swiss at Morat and Grandson, and rejoiced when he was ultimately slain at Nancy.

During Charles's sway, Louis XI had sided with the Netherlands, secretly stirring them up to revolt, until his

double dealing was discovered, and he was compelled either to turn upon his allies or forfeit his liberty. But, as broken promises were mere trifles for Louis the Crafty, the Duke of Burgundy no sooner died than this king tried to secure his estates by marrying the heiress, Mary of Burgundy, to his son. Although Louis seized Burgundy, the young lady herself retained her liberty and the Netherlands, which, at the bidding of her subjects, she bestowed with her hand upon Maximilian, son of the Emperor of Germany. Their marriage was celebrated by proxy at Bruges, in 1477, great haste being used to balk Louis XI's plans, which the people viewed with extreme distaste. Still, the German match did not please all the "hooks," although the majority of the "cods" sided with Maximilian, who was then so poor that his wife's states had to pay his travelling expenses, to enable him to come and claim the waiting bride whom he had never seen.

The young couple seem to have been very congenial, but Mary, who was passionately fond of hawking, met with an accident, and died from its consequences five years after her marriage. Although she left a son and daughter, they belong to their father's house of Austria, and thus with Mary's death the rule of the house of Burgundy comes to an end.

Philip of Austria, Mary's son, was only four years of age when called to rule the Netherlands under the guardianship of his father; but, as the people mistrusted Maximilian, they resented all he did, and considerable trouble ensued. In fact, several times during Philip's minority civil war broke out in the Netherlands. At seventeen young Philip came of age, and married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Their son, the famous Charles V, was born at Ghent in 1500. As his mother was insane, and as his father died when he was only six, this young prince was brought up in Flanders by his aunt Margaret, who, meantime, acted as Regent for the Netherlands, which thrived apace under her wise care.

Her brilliant nephew, master of the Netherlands at six years of age, became at Ferdinand's death King of Spain also, and in 1519 Emperor of Germany. But although, by his marriage with a Portuguese princess and by his successful wars against Francis, it seemed as though he would soon be master of all Central and South-western Europe, his ambitious plans were all to be wrecked by the Reform movement, which culminated in Germany under the leadership of Luther.

The Netherlands early felt this movement, for Erasmus, one of its instigators, was a native of Rotterdam. Not only were the Netherlands first to urge reform, but, what is better, they were also first to show religious toleration, welcoming the much-abused Jews, whose commerce and industry greatly benefited the country.

Although Charles was in many respects an able ruler, he never enjoyed the full confidence of his people; the Netherlands mistrusting him because he was "too Spanish" in his sympathies, and the Spaniards, because he was "too German." As it was impossible to be everywhere at once, Charles appointed stadtholders for each of the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, provinces which were represented on the national coat-of-arms by seventeen dots or bricks.

After vain efforts to suppress Protestantism in Germany, Charles V granted religious liberty by the Treaty of Passau, in 1552, and three years later, after introducing the Inquisition in the Netherlands, he abdicated at Brussels in favor of Philip II, his son. On this solemn occasion Charles V leaned upon one of his pages, William of Orange, a man who was to make a great mark in history.

Philip II, Count of Holland and King of Spain (but not Emperor of Germany, like his father), married Queen Mary of England. Influenced by him, Mary persecuted the Protestants and declared war against France. In this conflict Philip won brilliant victories at St. Quentin and at Gravelines, and when it ended, he made a secret compact whereby the French, English, and Spanish (also

Netherland) rulers pledged themselves to stamp out heresy in their realms. It seems that even the Massacre of St. Bartholomew was then discussed and agreed upon, yet this secret arrangement might never have become known, had not William of Orange been sent to France as a hostage. There, thinking he was fully initiated, the French king once discussed the project in his presence, and it was by keeping strict silence and not betraying by word or sign that he was learning something new, that William discovered the plot and earned at the same time his well-known epithet of "The Silent."

The first move in Philip's game was to extirpate heresy in the Netherlands, and to appoint sixteen new bishops; then he made his half-sister nominally regent, while in reality she was only the tool of her confessor, the cruel Granvelle. The provinces had, besides, stadtholders, among whom were Egmont and William of Orange, who, as soon as Granvelle's intentions became apparent, protested so vehemently that the bishop fled, fearing for his life. In spite of protests, the cruel work continued; so the people of the Netherlands petitioned the Regent Margaret, and when one of her councillors contemptuously stigmatised the petitioners as beggars, they seized upon that name as a rallying cry, using a beggar's wooden bowl as their badge.

No public worship being allowed save in Roman Catholic churches, the Reformers began to congregate outside of the cities, where "hedge preaching" attracted no less than five thousand devout listeners near Antwerp. Among these there was, as usual, a small turbulent element, and it was this party which invaded four hundred churches in the Netherlands, breaking images, destroying relics and works of art of all kinds, and leaving ruin in its wake.

Had the Protestants been unanimous and firm, they would undoubtedly have obtained all the concessions they desired, but the unfortunate divisions in their ranks gave Philip the opportunity he craved; so he sent his general Alva, with an army of 10,000 Spaniards and

Italians, to suppress heresy in the Netherlands by armed force. The news of this appointment reached William of Orange through a spy at Philip's court, and no sooner was it made known in the Netherlands than Protestants fled in hosts to England and Germany, where, as they introduced new industries, they proved most welcome citizens.

The appointment of Alva marks the beginning of "the Eighty Years' War," during which more than a million cloth-weavers and other industrious people of the Netherlands left their country forever. This war is also memorable for the institution of the Council of Troubles, for countless persecutions and executions for heresy and political offences, and for protracted sieges, during which the inhabitants of Antwerp, Leyden, Amsterdam, etc. suffered untold hardships and displayed the utmost heroism. But throughout this struggle "The Beggars" fought bravely by land and by sea, often cutting their dykes to flood the land, or blowing up their ships, rather than yield to the tyranny of Spain or of the Inquisitors.

Although Van Horn and Egmont were seized and executed, William of Orange effected his escape to Germany, whence he re-entered Holland with an army to lead the great fight for religious and political freedom. By the Pacification of Ghent in 1576, William invited the seventeen provinces to unite against the foe, but only seven in the north responded to this appeal.

It was this federation of seven provinces which secured Elizabeth's help, and whose independence was formally recognised by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1579. Meantime the southern provinces, where "heresy" had been stamped out by the Inquisition, and which were French in language and sympathy, selected the Duke of Anjou as their ruler, and the city of Antwerp, after being a prey to "Spanish fury," felt all the force of "French fury" as well. That same year also a first attempt was made to assassinate William of Orange, who succumbed to the second in 1584, and was buried at Delft in the family sepulchre.



John of Barnevelt and Prince Maurice (son of William of Orange) now became leaders of the Seven Provinces and of the cause of freedom, thus opposing Parma, who replaced Alva and Requesens. The war now dragged on, until, after the sieges of Gertruydenberg and Ostend, a twelve years' truce (1609) gave the Netherlanders a breathing-spell, during which commerce received a new impetus and prosperity reigned.

It was in the course of this truce that Barnevelt and Grotius were arrested; but while one patriot perished on the scaffold, the other effected his escape from prison thanks to the ingenuity of his wife, and took refuge in France, where he wrote the book which stamps him "father of arbitration."

With the end of the twelve years' truce in 1621, the Eighty Years' War broke out anew, in spite of which fact this is reckoned as the "Golden Era of Holland," for it is the time when the founding of the Bank of Amsterdam furthered commerce, when new inventions and discoveries abounded, when the fine arts flourished under such artists as Rembrandt, Hals, Steen, Potter, etc., and when tulipomania was at its greatest height.

After more events too numerous to mention, the Eighty Years' War ended with the Peace of Münster, in 1648. This decreed that the Scheldt should thereafter be closed — thus killing Antwerp's thriving commerce — and that the northern provinces should separate definitely from those in the south, which during the next two hundred years remained in the hands of Spain or Austria. Meantime the northern provinces thrived under Orange rule, until the Navigation Act of 1651 so crippled their commerce that a war was waged against England, wherein Van Tromp, the Dutch Admiral, won great laurels.

From 1650 to 1672 there was no stadtholder in Holland. The Perpetual Edict had abolished that office, and John De Witt was manfully striving to educate the heir of the Orange family to carry out his plans. In spite of his well-meant efforts, Holland, abandoned by

her allies, and pitted alone against France, saw her territory invaded by Louis XIV's armies. Then a revolution took place, wherein the De Witt brothers were murdered by the mob, and the stadtholders restored under another William of Orange.

This young prince, nearly as taciturn as his famous namesake, married Princess Mary of England, and when the Revolution of 1688 took place, he and his wife mounted the English throne. Their so-called usurpation gave rise to a new war, which terminated by the Peace of Ryswick in 1697. Five years later William followed Mary to the tomb, mourned by England and by the Seven United Provinces.

The office of stadtholder remained vacant until 1747, when it was held by a grandson of George II, who ultimately married a daughter of Frederick the Great. The fact that the Dutch recognised the Independence of the United States in 1776, caused such wrath in England that war ensued; then came the French Revolution, followed by the "French Winter" and invasion, during which, owing to the thick ice, French cavalry actually seized a Dutch fleet!

The French were warmly welcomed at Amsterdam, where liberty trees were planted, and a Batavian Republic formally proclaimed in 1795. From then until 1814 the Netherlands were more or less under French control, paying dear both in men and money for the so-called protection of that country.

Napoleon visited the country whence he was to drain soldiers for his many wars in 1805, and two years later turned the Netherlands into the Kingdom of Holland, so that his brother Louis Napoleon and step-daughter Hortense de Beauharnais might be styled king and queen. Still, as Napoleon's tyrannical superintendence made this rule purely nominal, Louis I, who meant well but felt hampered beyond endurance, abdicated in 1810.

Holland was now merged into the French Empire, the Napoleonic Code was introduced, and conscription rapidly thinned the population, — a state of affairs

patiently endured until the prohibition to receive English goods dealt such a cruel blow to trade that an opportunity was eagerly sought to rebel.

The retreat of Moscow, the battle of Leipzig, the invasion of France, and abdication of Napoleon were therefore all welcome in the Netherlands. At the battle of Waterloo, where Napoleon's star definitely set, the British, Germans, Hollanders, and Belgians banded together against the French. Victory having perched upon their banners, William I, of the house of Orange, was proclaimed king, thus giving rise to the French witticism, "The Dutch have taken Holland!"

In reconstructing the map of Europe, the Congress of Vienna decided that Belgium and Holland should henceforth be united, and by this decree the seventeen provinces again formed one realm. But the difference in language, religion, and customs made it so impossible to establish perfect harmony that in 1830, after a ten days' war, Belgium parted company with Holland, and set up a separate government, offering the crown to Leopold of Coburg, who married a daughter of Louis Philippe, King of France.

In 1839 the Scheldt, which had been closed ever since 1648, was again thrown open to navigation, and Antwerp, dead for nearly two hundred years, sprang into life and activity, which was further increased when all river dues were abolished in 1863. Meantime, King William of Holland had resigned in 1840 in favor of his son, who died in 1848, soon after giving new laws to his country.

William III ruled the eleven Dutch provinces forty-one years, and married twice. All his children by his first wife followed her to the grave; so when the king died in 1890, his ten-year-old daughter Wilhelmina became queen, her mother, Emma of Waldeck, acting as regent during her minority.

Wilhelmina was crowned in 1898, held the Peace Congress at Hague in 1899, was married to a German prince in 1901, and is now the idol of the Dutch people, who always speak lovingly of her as their "little queen."

Meantime there had been some difficulties between Belgium and Holland in regard to the division of territory, but these quarrels were all settled in 1839, when both finally agreed to divide Luxembourg and Limburg. Since then, Belgium has steadily improved in laws, government, and education, and, thanks to her mines, manufactures, exports, etc., is now one of the most thriving countries in Europe.

In 1865 Leopold I died, since when his son Leopold II has been a shrewd, money-making ruler, maintaining strict neutrality during the Franco-Prussian War, and signing treaties of friendship and trade with England, France, and Germany. Leopold has also acquired in Africa the Congo Free State, which is already an important colonial possession for Belgium, to which it was formally annexed in 1901, and it promises to become even more valuable in the near future.

## Chronology of the Netherlands

B. C.	A. D.
Celtic tribes.	1428 Death of Jacqueline. End of Bavarian rule.
100 Arrival of Frisians and Bata- vians.	1436-1493 Netherlands under Bur- gundian rule.
A. D.	1477 Death of Charles the Bold. Mary marries Maximilian of Austria.
54-277 Roman period. Gallia Belgica.	1482 Death of Mary. End of house of Burgundy in Netherlands.
280-800 The Frankish period.	1493-1609 Netherlands under Em- pire. House of Austria.
700-800 Christianity preached. Utrecht first church.	1496 Marriage of Philip (son of Mary) and Joanna of Spain.
810 Norman raids.	1515 Charles, their son, rules Neth- erlands.
839, 1170, 1260, 1277-1341, 1446 Floods. Zuyder Zee, etc. formed.	1519 Becomes Charles V of Ger- many.
922-1299 Counts of Holland. Delft and Dordrecht founded.	1556 Charles V abdicates. Nether- lands under Spanish rule only.
1096 Crusades begin. First Charter granted.	1556-1598 Philip II.
1219 Dams and dykes built.	1558 Battle of St. Quentin.
1299-1359 Holland and Hainault united.	1559 Margaret of Parma viceroy. Inquisition. Tyranny of
1300 Amsterdam a city.	
1329 First windmills.	
1349 End of house of Hainault.	
1349-1390 Cods <i>vs.</i> hooks.	
1350 Herring curing discovered.	

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| <p>A. D.</p> <p>Granvelle. Revolt. Alva. Emigration.</p> <p>1566 The Beggars. The image-breakers.</p> <p>1567-1573 Alva's reign of terror.</p> <p>1567-1648 Eighty Years' War.</p> <p>1568 Egmont and Horn beheaded.</p> <p>1579-1584 William of Orange stadtholder of seven revolted provinces.</p> <p>1581 Dutch independence declared.</p> <p>1584-1618 Henry Philip William stadtholder.</p> <p>1588 Armada to combine with Alva's army. Destroyed.</p> <p>1598 Ten provinces remain to Archduke, seven rebel.</p> <p>1602 Dutch East India Company formed.</p> <p>1609-1648 Complete independence from Spain. Twelve years' truce.</p> <p>1618-1625 Maurice of Orange stadtholder.</p> <p>1619 Barneveldt beheaded.</p> <p>1621 Renewal of war with Spain. Age of great artists, scholars, etc.</p> <p>1625-1647 Prince Frederick Henry stadtholder.</p> <p>1647-1650 William II stadtholder.</p> <p>1648 Peace of Münster ends Eighty Years' War.</p> <p>1648-1715 Entangled in European political quarrels.</p> <p>1650-1702 William III.</p> <p>1652 Sea fights <i>vs.</i> English. Tromp, De Ruyter, Evertson, John De Witt, Grand Pensionary.</p> <p>1667 The Perpetual Edict.</p> <p>1668 Triple Alliance <i>vs.</i> France.</p> <p>1672 French Invasion. Murder of the De Witt brothers.</p> <p>1678 Peace of Nymwegen.</p> <p>1685 Revocation of Edict of Nantes. Huguenot refugees in Holland.</p> <p>1688 William of Orange and Mary called to rule England.</p> <p>1697 Peace of Ryswick ends war with France.</p> <p>1702 Death of William (III), last</p> | <p>A. D.</p> <p>direct Orange prince. Orange-Nassau rule.</p> <p>1702-1711 John William Frizo, stadtholder.</p> <p>1706-1709 War of Spanish Succession.</p> <p>1711-1747 Charles Henry Frizo, stadtholder.</p> <p>1714 Seven provinces ceded to Germany.</p> <p>1715-1794 Republic again.</p> <p>1716 Peace of Utrecht.</p> <p>1740-1748 War of German Succession.</p> <p>1747-1751 William IV hereditary stadtholder.</p> <p>1748 Three provinces ceded to France.</p> <p>1751 William V last stadtholder. Princess Anne regent.</p> <p>1776-1780 Recognition of United States of America.</p> <p>1784-1787 Civil War.</p> <p>1789 French Revolution.</p> <p>1792 French enter Belgium.</p> <p>1793 French rule in Holland.</p> <p>1795 Stadtholder William V expelled.</p> <p>1797 Battle of Camperdown.</p> <p>1797-1806 Batavian Republic.</p> <p>1799 Texel fleet surrenders.</p> <p>1805 Batavian Constitution.</p> <p>1806-1810 Louis Bonaparte King of Holland.</p> <p>1810-1813 Netherlands united to France.</p> <p>1813 Holland and Belgium restored to William I King of Holland.</p> <p>1815 Battle of Waterloo.</p> <p>1815-1840 William I of Orange King of Holland and Belgium (abdicates).</p> <p>1816 Dutch and English bombard Algiers.</p> <p>1830 Revolution in Belgium. War. Separation.</p> <p>1831 Belgian crown rejected by Nemours. Accepted by Leopold I of Coburg.</p> <p>1832 Leopold I marries Louise daughter of Louis Philippe.</p> <p>1839 Treaty of London between Belgium and Holland.</p> <p>1840-1849 William II of Holland.</p> |
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A. D.		A. D.	
1849-1890	William III of Holland.	1890-	Wilhelmina. Queen
1853	Haarlem Lake drained.		Emma Regent.
1865-	Leopold II of Belgium.	1901	Wilhelmina marries Henry
1867	Limburg a Dutch province.		of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.
1876	North Canal opened.		Peace Congress.
1880	Birth of Wilhelmina of		
	Holland.		

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## XXII

### TRAVEL IN BELGIUM AND HOLLAND

IN coming direct from England to Belgium, the traveller is likely, after passing a wonderful modern lighthouse, to land at Ostend, the greatest seaport and bathing-resort in West Flanders. An ancient town, it has long been a great trade centre, and it is connected by canals with many inland places, whence produce is sent to the seaboard for exportation. A monumental brick dyke keeps out the sea, besides affording a charming promenade for the idlers of the bathing-resort, who congregate at the Kurhaus for balls, concerts, and other amusements. Attractive villas border this dyke, or are perched along the dunes; among others, that of the king. The curious oyster-parks and coast-fishing industry supply objects of interest, as do the quaint churches, and other historical mementos of a place which endured a three years' siege early in the seventeenth century. Railways running north and south along the coast bring you to less fashionable but far cheaper bathing-places, where you can study the native fisherman in his wonted surroundings, while indulging in fishing, should your tastes incline in that direction.

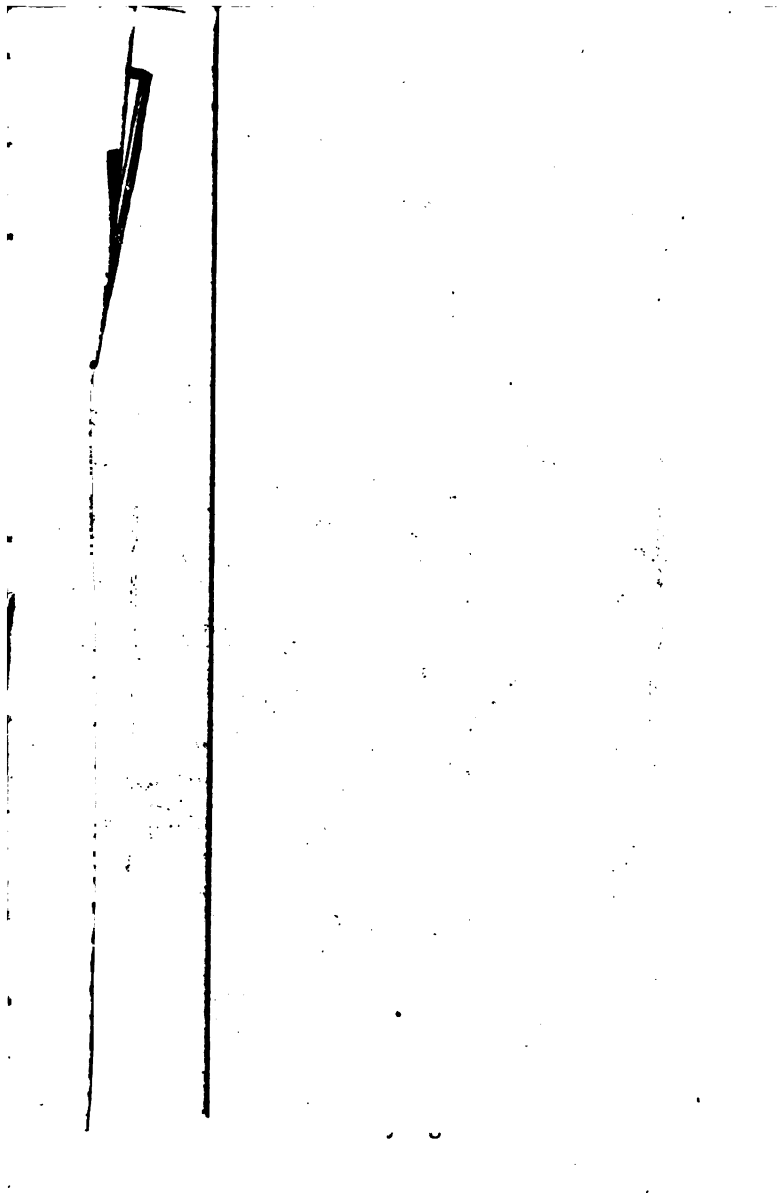
After curving inland, the southward railway line comes to Furnes, a town which has changed very little during the past few centuries, and where, on the last Sunday in July, you can witness a quaint religious procession, and the dramatic presentation by means of a series of tableaux of the Story of the Passion. Here, too, the mediæval city hall, and the Grand Palace with its leather wall hangings, old Flemish tapestry, and fine wood carving, are a few of the most noted sights to enjoy.

From Furnes to Ypres by railway or bicycle — for roads are excellent as a rule throughout Belgium and Holland — requires but very little time. On reaching this interesting town, with its ancient fortifications, and lace and linen manufactories, the sight of the Gothic "Halles" (Markets) reminds us that it was once the capital of West Flanders, and after 1073 the centre of a flourishing cloth trade. Since then, the town has lost much of its ancient prestige, for it was once reputed the wealthiest in Flanders, and a French queen petulantly remarked to her husband on seeing the rich apparel of the Flemish ladies: "I fancied there was but one queen here, and lo! I behold six hundred!"

Owing to its rich burghers and numerous guilds, the city soon asserted its rights, and from the picturesque belfry alarm bells were sounded more than once to call the citizens to rebel against their lords and masters. Plague, rebellions, sieges, conflagrations, and persecution did their worst, so that Ypres is now a very secondary commercial place, although from the traveller's point of view one of the most interesting cities in Belgium.

By going northward from Ostend, one soon comes to Bruges, which, by the way, can also be reached by canal, like Furnes. The mere name of this city calls up Longfellow's musical poem, and makes us eager to behold the belfry, whence the chimes pealed forth, generally for peaceful purposes, but *once at least* for a massacre, famous in Belgian annals as the "matins of Bruges." There are also quaint gabled houses, a cathedral, and churches with art treasures of all kinds, and the Hospital of St. John, where is preserved Memling's chief masterpiece, the Reliquary of St. Ursula, all decorated with various scenes from the life of the martyr, painted with minute care. In the Museum are also many fine examples of Flemish art, and tourists will find a visit to the Béguinage (a quaint nunnery) most fascinating. The "Halles," however, — which, like all similar places, were once the central market where weavers brought their cloth for sale at stated times, — and the City Hall





Cloth for sale at stated prices.

are particularly interesting, both in themselves and on account of the treasures they contain.

While there are all manner of characteristically Flemish places between Bruges and Ghent, the vacation tourist is not likely to have much time to devote to their study. If possible, however, make a sojourn however brief in Ghent, the capital of East Flanders, a city which has been noted for its wealth and commerce ever since the seventh century, and which took a prominent part in all the wars, etc., in which the southern part of the Netherlands was involved. The name calls up memories of Edward III, James and Philip van Artevelt, Maximilian's wedding and imprisonment,—in short, all manner of romantic historical episodes. The ancient cathedral, with Van Eyck's famous "Adoration of the Lamb," the Belfry, City Hall, churches, castle, museums, university, park, and Béguinages (or nunneries) are only a few of the many attractions which are sure to charm all lovers of the picturesque.

From Ghent, by travelling directly southward, one strikes Courtrai, once famous for the battle of Spurs, and now on account of its exquisite table linen and fine lace, in the manufacture of which thousands of women find occupation. Here again monuments, Gothic Town Hall, cathedral, churches, and quaint, old-fashioned streets and houses afford much opportunity for sight-seeing and study, ere you journey farther southward to Tournai, one of the most ancient towns in Belgium, where Cæsar once camped, where the early Merovingians had their capital, and near which occurred the famous battle in the course of which Clovis was converted. Tournai has military memories connected also with ancient and modern times, and boasts a cathedral which is estimated as one of the finest examples of mediæval architecture. After studying its statues and other treasures, one enjoys a sight of the belfry and old bridge across the Scheldt, and those who have leisure will doubtless indulge in rides and drives to the neighbouring villages, to study the farm and peasant life of this fertile and thrifty region.

From Ghent many travellers push straight on to Antwerp (Anvers), one of the landing-places for transatlantic steamers, which owes its name either to the fact, as the prosaic claim, that it is situated along the wharves (a'ant worp), or, as the romantic prefer to believe, because a giant was in the habit of chopping off the hands of such prisoners as he could snatch, and hurled them over the walls into the city (hand werpen). Antwerp boasts many famous citizens besides Godefroy de Bouillon, leader of the first Crusade, and Rubens, whose masterpiece, "The Descent from the Cross," graces its famous cathedral. As this is considered one of the most interesting of the Flemish cities, you can imagine how many objects of wonder you will find there, and how much pleasure is in store for you if you have leisure to examine them thoroughly. The museums and picture galleries afford opportunities to study Flemish art carefully, besides revealing art treasures from other climes, imported by the wealthy and beauty-loving Flemish burghers. Flower lovers will delight also in the Botanical Gardens, for the Flemish and their Dutch kin are famous for their horticultural feats, and can give points to the best gardeners. The docks, the walks, and the Steen with its dungeons, are all worthy of several visits.

Antwerp, the farthest north of the interesting large cities of Belgium, is a good point of departure to reach Mechlin (Malines), famous for its picturesque gabled houses, its statues, cathedral, and churches, no less than for the beautiful lace still made there by many deft fingers. From Malines to Louvain, with a Gothic City Hall directly opposite a fine church, we can pass into the Limburg province, noted for redolent odours, where, if we visit the farming region, we can see many a dairy whence cream, butter, and cheese find their way to Brussels, Liège, and even farther afield. It is in the southern part of the Limburg territory that we find the small town of Landen, whence sprang the famous Mayor of the Palace, the ancestor of Charlemagne.

Liège, in the centre of the eastern province of the



North Promenade and the Steen Museum, Antwerp



Palace of Justice, Brussels  
pp. 276, 468

same name, is the nucleus of the coal district, and a great foundry and manufacturing metropolis as well. It is also known for its record in history, its art treasures, and numerous other attractions, besides its picturesque location in a hilly country. Its park, churches, museums, theatres, university, City Hall, and citadel, all clamour for notice, for all are fascinatingly interesting in different ways, and recall in particular "Quentin Durward" and "The Cloister and the Hearth." At a short distance from Liège, Spa is situated, the most ancient of the bathing-resorts of Europe, frequented during the season by crowned heads and by the world of aristocracy, wealth, and fashion.

From Liège, up the Meuse to Namur, in the province of the same name, and from thence to Charleroi, would afford a canoeist a delightful trip, enabling him to see much of the picturesque banks of this stream and its affluents, besides affording glimpses of famous castles, pretty villages, and places noted for battles, as there is hardly an inch of this soil which has not been drenched in blood at some time since our era began.

From Charleroi to Mons, and from thence to Nivelles and Brussels, will take you through the south central part of Belgium and back to its very heart, enabling you thus to visit more cathedrals, churches, city halls, battlefields, and other points of interest, before you settle down for a few days at least in the capital of the kingdom, which is often called a little Paris. The fine streets and new buildings are worthy of admiration, but the older constructions are necessarily of greater interest to Americans, and its art treasures delight all who view them intelligently. Besides sundry priceless masterpieces of older schools and other countries, Brussels possesses many fine modern paintings, and travellers find also in the Wiertz gallery, the Museum of Decorative and Industrial Arts, and the Modern Painting Galleries, places where one can linger a long time with pleasure and profit.

To enumerate all Brussels' attractions would be a work of considerable scope, but even the passing traveller can

catch a glimpse, at least, of the quaint City Hall, the massive Palace of Justice, the famous old church of St. Gudule, the park and fountains, while those who can linger there a trifle longer can rise early to behold the flower market, and drive out to Waterloo, to view the famous battlefield and the monuments commemorating the triumph of the combined English and Prussian forces over the French.

Although we have now named many interesting places to visit in the small kingdom of Belgium, we have as yet made no mention of Luxembourg, a picturesque region, bordering on France, covered with the wooded hills of the great Ardennes forest, where good hunting can still be enjoyed in the season, and where charcoal-burner camps are one of the distinctive features of the region. The artist will find here deep ravines with swift brawling streams, ruined castles perched up on wooded heights, and all manner of simple folk busy at their homely avocations, who offer splendid subjects for pencil, brush, or camera. Luxembourg city, the capital of the famous duchy, and a delightfully picturesque town, still has some remains of the famous Vauban fortifications destroyed in 1867, and the Ducal Palace, National Museum, and the rock-hewn chapel of St. Quirines are all worth visiting, provided you have time to stray from the beaten track.

## HOLLAND

Holland is generally visited in connection with Belgium, for the two countries lying so close to one another are often bracketed together. We find Brabant and Limburg in Holland as well as in Belgium, and here, too, one's atlas fairly bristles with the dates of battles fought on the soil. This section, like most of the rest of the country, consists mainly of rich pasture land, where sleek herds of cows can be seen grazing, cows whose milk furnishes one of the staple products of the country. After leaving Antwerp, the first important centre you reach is Breda, whose name calls up the



famous picture of "The Surrender of Breda" by Velasquez, and the historical memories connected therewith. After admiring its church and castle, we cross a great bridge, which spans an arm of the sea, ere coming to Dordrecht, with its quaint old houses, its memories of John and Cornelius De Witt (whom most of us remember best through Dumas' "Black Tulip"), and its museums of various kinds, one of them being devoted, for instance, to relics of the recent Boer War.

By means of one of the branches of the Meuse, it is easy to sail leisurely from Dordrecht to Flushing on the picturesque Walcheren Island, right at the broad Scheldt estuary and facing on the stormy North Sea. This island is one of the group forming the province of Zeeland, and Flushing is the native city of Holland's brave admiral De Ruyter, and is besides noted as a bathing-resort much frequented by German visitors. Here, and at Middleburg, farther inland, you can see throngs of Dutch peasants on market or fair days, in picturesque costumes, and can admire a fine Gothic Town Hall, the Abbey of St. Nicholas, and a few fine pictures in the Museum of Art.

Although Flushing and Middleburg are upon the outermost island, it is possible to reach Berg-op-Zoom on the mainland by train, for a railway line passes from island to island over long trestle-like bridges. At the time of Christopher Columbus's great discovery, Berg-op-Zoom was already a great fishing-centre, and noted also for its flourishing cloth trade. Its oyster-beds are still famous, and strangers enjoy watching the men dredging for the bivalves with characteristic imperturbability. A visit to the City Hall, and one to the main church and the remains of the ancient fortifications, will please sight-seers, who may also enjoy the music in the parks and especially the sight of the picturesque crowd it attracts.

From Dordrecht one can also go, by waterways only, to Rotterdam, although it is also possible to reach that place by train, after crossing the most northern branch of the Meuse. A seaport of such importance that transatlantic steamships dock there, Rotterdam is most inter-

esting as a busy shipping-centre, goods and products coming thither from all points of Holland and Germany, mainly along the numerous canals which make of the city a northern Venice. The birthplace of Erasmus, — whose statue decks the great Market Square, — the chief attraction for picture-lovers is the museum, which contains besides many famous examples of the Dutch and Flemish schools, valuable collections of manuscripts, drawings, engravings, porcelain and pottery of all kinds. The huge trees in the park, the fish-ponds, botanical and zoölogical gardens, all have their attractions, and are likely to detain the tourist as long as his time will permit, before passing on to Delftshaven, Schiedam (famous for its two hundred distilleries), whence he can sail on past windmills galore to the Hook of Holland at the mouth of the Meuse, which is in direct communication with Rotterdam both by canal and by railway.

From Delftshaven to Delft is but a brief journey, and all tourists like to visit the quaint town, famous for its peculiar china-ware, for its peaceful, tree-bordered canals, and ultra-cleanly aspect, as well as for the fact that Admiral van Tromp is buried there, that it boasts a monument erected in honour of William of Orange, and last, and by no means least, that it once harboured some of the Pilgrims, who decided to emigrate to America in search of a place where they could worship God as they chose, without running the risk of having their children forget their native land or mother tongue.

The journey is again very brief between Delft and the Hague, the capital of Holland, and hence the residence of Queen Wilhelmina and of her German consort. Noted especially for its wonderful shade-trees, its thriving arts and manufactures, the town also attracts many artists, particularly on account of the priceless collection of pictures, first begun by the Prince of Orange in the Mauritshuis, which, besides foreign masterpieces, boasts the choicest works of Rembrandt, Potter, Dou, Ruysdael, Rubens, etc.

The mediæval buildings of the Buitenhof with all its

historical associations, the great Vyver (Weir) with its graceful swans, the Steengracht, Mesdag, picture galleries, Museum of Industrial Art, and Royal Library, will all afford subjects for study and amusement. In the Town Hall you can admire one of the most ancient buildings of the city; in the Royal Palace you behold one dating back to the beginning of the nineteenth century, and in the National Monument an example of contemporary art.

Outside of the city you will find the Zoölogical-Botanical Gardens, and the extensive park in whose cool, shady recesses stands the royal villa known as "The House in the Woods," where the Peace Congress met in 1899 in the famous octagonal "Orange Saloon."

From the Hague you can reach Scheveningen — the most fashionable of Dutch seaside resorts — either by train, electric, or other tramway if you prefer a speedier mode of locomotion than that which the sluggish waterways afford. A fishing-village during the main part of the year, Scheveningen during the bathing-season is thronged with visitors from many climes, whose hooded chairs dot the beach, and who greatly enjoy the boating, bathing, and fishing by day, and the Kurhaus concerts and other entertainments in the evening. Visits to the Pier, the Dunes, the lighthouse, and the great fish-market, are a few of the local amusements, which, however, cannot long detain a tourist bent on seeing the rest of Holland.

From the Hague one can easily reach Leyden, on the Old Rhine, one of the most ancient of the Dutch cities, and noted in history for its plague, its siege, its relief by William of Orange, its University, museums, City Hall, churches, etc. Besides, it is of special interest to Americans, for it is the Dutch port whence some of the Pilgrims sailed for America. From there one can easily make an excursion to Katwykaan-Zee, where artists congregate to study the fishing-fleet, and where, by an ingenious system of canals, locks, and pumps, the otherwise stagnant waters of the Rhine are pumped into the North Sea.

From Leyden we proceed to Haarlem, with its quaint architecture, well-kept gardens and parks, great bulb industry, — which gave rise to what is known as tulipomania, — and Town Hall, where you can view no less than ten large canvases by Franz Hals, not to mention numerous masterpieces by other famous artists, both native and foreign, which are further supplemented by fine pictures in the other museums of the city.

The Forest of Haarlem gives one a good idea of the Dutch lime and beech trees, while Bloemendaal can justly lay claim to its poetical name, for its numerous villas are fairly smothered in flowers, and it thus offers a striking contrast to the barren sand dunes further on. From Amsterdam on the Zuyder Zee to the coast of the North Sea there is another great waterway known as the "North Sea" or "Amsterdam Canal," which passes through Zaandam, where Peter the Great learned ship-building. This canal is connected with another which runs up to the mouth of the Zuyder Zee, directly opposite the island of Texel, the southernmost link of the chain of islands along what was once the coast of Holland, but is now known as the Zuyder Zee. While all Holland is dotted with windmills, they seem particularly numerous along this canal, and strangers often find entertainment in counting all those within their range of vision, gleefully proclaiming how many hundreds they can descry from one spot with the naked eye.

Along the North Holland Canal we come to Alkmaar, which boasts of many local attractions besides a picture gallery and Gothic church. At the end of the canal we find the town of Hader with its huge dyke, whence vessels ply back and forth to Texel, bringing back among other produce great quantities of eggs, laid by sea-fowls on the northern extremity of the island, which is therefore locally known as "Egg Island."

Amsterdam, "the Venice of the North," the commercial metropolis of Holland, and a great centre for the cutting and sale of diamonds, is not as old as many of the other towns in the country. Its prosperity is doubt-

less due in a great measure to the calamity which resulted in the formation of the Zuyder Zee, and which thus transformed an inland city into a seaport. Besides, the toleration shown there attracted large numbers of Jews and of the Protestants exiled from Brabant, a population which contributed in no small measure to its prosperity. The Royal Palace and Town Hall, the churches, and especially the Ryks Museum, with its collection of ancient and modern paintings, all deserve close attention, as do the other famous museums and points of interest within the city limits. By climbing one of the tall belfries, church spires, or other towers of Dutch towns, tourists can, on clear days, behold a panorama of the greater part of the surrounding country.

Outside of the city one can visit the old Toll or Custom House, and by taking a steamer easily reach the quaint island of Marken, where, for a consideration, the inhabitants gladly exhibit their houses, the Sunday costumes treasured up in their chests and handed down from one generation to another, and afford you a glimpse of their spotless dairies, filled with odd-shaped churns and other wooden and copper utensils. From there you can sail to Edam, famous for its cheese, to Hoorn, the native place of the discoverer of Cape Horn, and proceed next to Enkhuysen, once a herring-fishing station, but now of special interest as the point whence the projected great dam across the Zuyder Zee will start for the island of Urk in its centre, and thence to Kampen, on the opposite shore. When this great breakwater is completed, many acres of fertile soil will be added to the Dutch territory, thus contributing materially to the wealth of a country which already seems to be overcrowded.

From Enkhuysen it is now possible by ship to reach this island of Urk, which is even more picturesque, because less frequently visited, than that of Marken, and to make an excursion to Stavoren, where you will behold the great sand-bar, whose presence is accounted for by a characteristic legend. A visit to the peculiar Gaasterland forest, before journeying farther into Friesland —

where the quaint costumes of the thrifty peasants and fishermen always attract those who hunt for the picturesque — will enable you to range through sections which, like Groningue, Drenthe, and Overysse, are seldom visited by ordinary tourists. These linger by preference in the southern province of Utrecht, where the Old Rhine divides into two branches, visiting the quaint city of the same name, which existed already in the days of the Romans, and has been a place of considerable importance for nearly two thousand years. Its cathedral, university, ramparts, museums, are all attractive, and in the rich country around there, many fine villas and castles can be visited, one of which was given to the Queen of Holland's grandfather in reward for the bravery he displayed at the battle of Waterloo.

All throughout this trip the tourist is likely to be struck with the frequency of the Dutch appellation or termination "dam" or dyke. He may meet with such a combination as that given in a recent novel, where the heroine states that her address read, "Hotel Dam, at Hoekdam, in Edam, between Amsterdam and Volendam," adding the humorous comment that when she had finished reading it she felt desperately wicked, and that subsequently when things did not suit her, it was often a relief to quote this address out loud.

### Holland Money Table

	Approximate values.	Abbreviations.	Metal.
$\frac{1}{2}$ centime . . . . .	= $\frac{1}{2}$ ct.	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	(rare) copper.
1 centime . . . . .	= $\frac{1}{2}$ ct.	1 c.	copper.
$2\frac{1}{2}$ centimes . . . . .	= 1 ct.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ c.	copper.
5 centimes (stuiver) . . . . .	= $2\frac{1}{2}$ cts.	5 c.	nickel.
10 centimes (dubbeltje) . . . . .	= 5 cts.	10 c.	nickel.
25 centimes (kwartje) . . . . .	= 12 cts.	25 c.	silver.
50 centimes . . . . .	= 25 cts.	50 c.	silver.
1 guilder or florin . . . . .	= 40 cts.	1 G. or Fl.	silver.
$2\frac{1}{2}$ florins . . . . .	= \$1.05	$2\frac{1}{2}$ Fl.	silver.
10 florins . . . . .	= \$4.00	10 Fl.	gold.

Legal value: guilder, gulden, or florin (100 centimes) = 38.5 cts.



House in the Woods, Hague  
p. 281



Arquebusiers, Hals  
p. 282



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## XXIII

# HISTORY OF THE SCANDINAVIAN STATES

### DENMARK

DENMARK is the smallest of the three Scandinavian kingdoms, and being nearest Germany will occupy our attention first. The early history of this promontory is mostly found in the prehistoric remains which have been discovered from time to time, and in the fascinating old Scandinavian mythology and sagas in which undoubtedly there are imbedded many authentic facts. The earliest inhabitants of whom traces have been found were crowded out by Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, the Danes themselves reaching this country only in the fifth or sixth century of our era, when Christianity first made its way into that region. Although each tribe was at first under its own ruler and there was no unity to speak of, the various divisions gradually united until by the tenth century Gorm the Old is mentioned not only as king, but also as a bitter foe of the missionaries and of the new religion.

It is at this epoch that the Danes raided and conquered England, for Sweyn and Canute claimed kingship over both countries, and proved on the whole progressive rulers. They still belonged to the Odinic dynasty, which died out in 1047, and was replaced by that of the Estridsen, who introduced feudalism into Denmark. Some of the kings of this second dynasty were great warriors and extended their dominion far south into Germany. But these conquests were wrested from them again during the thirteenth century, when there was a period of anarchy and decay, followed by a new spell of prosperity and conquest.

The Danish laws were collected, and from 1372 to 1412 Queen Margaret ruled Denmark, adding Norway and Sweden to her realm. This combination of the forces of the three countries is known as the Union of Kalmar (1397), and all went well until Margaret died and was succeeded by a great-nephew, who speedily undid all her good work and lost his triple kingdom. Shortly after his death, the Danes, who had waived for a time the right to elect their sovereign, chose Christian of Oldenburg, who through his mother was related to the old race of kings. The Oldenburg dynasty held sway in Denmark from 1448 to 1863, and in accepting the crown declared that Holstein and Schleswig should always form part of the kingdom. As Holstein was then dependent upon the Holy Roman Empire, it came to pass that the King of Denmark had to do homage to the emperor for a part of his kingdom, and Germany thus claimed him as her vassal. But during Reformation times the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein ceased to belong even in name to the Holy Roman Empire, and were divided up among the king's brothers.

Meantime the successors of King Christian proved so tyrannical that Sweden rebelled and formed a separate kingdom under Gustavus Vasa. From 1588 to 1648 Denmark was governed by Christian IV, one of its ablest monarchs. He took part in the Thirty Years' War, and in a campaign against Sweden, where Denmark still held a few provinces. But although unsuccessful in war he governed wisely, and thus insured the prosperity of his people during his long reign. Under his son and successor, Denmark lost all her provinces in Sweden, royalty was made hereditary in the Oldenburg family, and many improvements took place in the government. In 1767 Christian began emancipating the serfs, a process which was completed in about twenty years, and since then all the genuine Danes have been free, although serfdom continued in the Schleswig-Holstein duchies until 1804.

Because Denmark was for a time an ally of Napoleon,

she had to fight Sweden, England, Russia, and Prussia, winning laurels in two great battles of Copenhagen in 1801 and 1807. In the last encounter the capital was bombarded by the allied fleets, and when Napoleon fell at last, the Danes were compelled to relinquish their hold on Norway in favour of Sweden.

Some years later (1830) trouble broke out between the German population in the duchies and their Danish masters, trouble which in 1848 culminated in the first Schleswig-Holstein war. For a time peace was restored, but when the direct Oldenburg line ended in 1863 and a branch of the family came to the throne, Schleswig-Holstein rebelled again, helped this time by Prussia and Austria. Thus Denmark found itself pitted not only against its two rebellious duchies but against two great European powers as well.

In spite of the utmost courage on the part of the Danes, they were defeated and compelled to give up the greater part of Holstein and Schleswig, which, since 1866, have formed part of Prussian territory.

Denmark is now ruled by an aged and much beloved king, one of whose daughters is Queen of England, while another is the mother of the Czar of Russia, Nicholas II.

## NORWAY

Norway is so fringed with islands and so deeply indented by the sea, that it has a coast line long enough to stretch half-way around the globe. In fact, it is nearly all either shore or mountain, and it is only at the southern end and in the valleys that agriculture can be carried on successfully.

The early history of the country is probably traced in the old sagas, wherein, however, it is hopeless to disentangle fact from fiction. Indeed, previous to the ninth century we have only legends and no historical data. During this period, as communication was difficult, not to say impossible, each tribe lived independently in its own valley, under the more or less despotic sway of a chief for more than half of the year.



Venus with the Apple,  
Thorwaldsen, Copenhagen  
pp. 46, 298, 423, 445



Copenhagen Church

p. 299

In the tenth century Harold Haarfagr united these scattered tribes and established his capital at Trondhjem ; but although he seems to have ruled the people at home with considerable skill, he had no authority whatever over the sea-kings, who, sailing out of the many viks, or bays, every spring, raided the coasts of the Orkney, Hebrides, and Shetland islands, as well as those of Scotland, England and Ireland, and of all the western shore line of Europe. The Danes and Norwegians, who thus became the terror of civilized countries, were known there by the collective term of Northmen, or Normans, the name by which they are generally mentioned.

When Christianity was first introduced into the Scandinavian peninsula under the son of Harold Haarfagr, the old Scandinavian religion rapidly disappeared, and when the two Olafs had converted all their subjects, many ceased to live by murder and piracy, hitherto their favourite occupations.

Still, Olaf the Saint was not allowed to finish his reign in peace ; he was driven out of the country by Canute of Denmark, who in 1028 conquered Norway. But no sooner had Canute passed away than the Norwegian dynasty recovered possession of the throne, and under their rule Norway reached the height of its power in the thirteenth century. Not only was all Norway theirs once more, but Iceland, Greenland, the Orkneys, Hebrides, and Shetland islands were also Norwegian, for they were then occupied by thriving Norse colonies.

When Hakon V died, leaving no male heirs, the Norwegians exercised their privilege of electing a king, and chose Magnus of Sweden, thus bringing both Scandinavian countries under the same sceptre. And when this monarch also passed away, leaving no heirs, his mother, Queen Margaret, ruled Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, binding the three kingdoms together by the Union of Kalmar in 1397.

This date is memorable indeed in the history of Norway, which from 1397 to 1814 continued to form one state with Denmark. The time of independence and

great prosperity was over, however, for in the middle of the fourteenth century the Black Death swept over the country, carrying away so large a proportion of its inhabitants that some districts were wellnigh deserted.

When Denmark, after siding with Napoleon, was compelled by the allies to cede Norway to Sweden, the former country made a futile attempt to recover its independence, an attempt which was checked by the Swedes under Bernadotte. Thus Norway was compelled to submit to the decrees of the Treaty of Kiel. Ever since then, although Norway obtained an independent parliament and flag, the two countries have never been really united, but have gone their separate ways; for the Norwegians and Swedes are very different, — the former being essentially democratic, while the latter pride themselves upon their conservatism and aristocratic tendencies.

In 1905, owing to an oft renewed quarrel about separate consulships, Norway suddenly severed her already strained connection with Sweden, and the world is now waiting to see what will ultimately result from this move.

## SWEDEN

One of the first bits of information about Sweden is found in Tacitus, where we read that the Swedes occupy the northern part of the peninsula and the Goths the southern. These tribes were not on a friendly footing, although their religion was the same, and although both considered Upsala as the principal shrine of their divinities. Many centuries elapse during which we know little or nothing of the country, where Ansgar penetrated in the beginning of the ninth century and began to convert the natives. Under Eric the Saint this work progressed rapidly, and by the time the twelfth century was half over, many churches and monasteries had been built in Sweden.

Eric the Saint, not content with converting his own subjects, penetrated into Finland, and forced its inhabi-



tants at the point of his sword to accept the new religion. But, before he had entirely completed their christianisation by drastic means, Sweden was attacked by the Danes, and while defending his throne this king lost his life.

Several monarchs followed whose reigns were brief and troubled; then Magnus ruled Sweden and Norway, and finally the crown was offered to Margaret of Denmark, who, as we have seen, united all three Scandinavian kingdoms under her sceptre. During her reign the Union of Kalmar welded Denmark and Norway together for more than four hundred years, but Sweden proved more restive, for already during the next century this country often waged war against Denmark.

As the Swedes were not content under Danish kings, they set up a new kingdom in the sixteenth century under Gustavus Vasa, — one of the national heroes as well as founder of a famous dynasty of kings. This monarch encouraged Lutheranism, organised the kingdom as a hereditary monarchy, brought order in the finances, encouraged commerce, manufacture, and arts, and left the country well provided with an army and navy.

Unfortunately his son proved incapable, and was deposed as insane; then the crown fell to the second prince, who had married a Polish princess and turned Roman Catholic. His and his son's attempts to restore Catholicism in Sweden resulted in a request for abdication, Gustavus Vasa's third son being then called to the vacant throne. This monarch, Charles IX, fostered trade, protected the burghers, and systematised the laws, thus paving the way for his famous son and successor Gustavus Adolphus, the greatest of the Swedish kings (1611-1632).

It was just at the time when the Protestants in Germany had been nearly annihilated by Wallenstein in the Thirty Years' War, that Gustavus Adolphus appeared as their champion, having already won renown and an extension of territory in his wars against Russia, Poland, and Denmark. Gustavus's triumphs in Germany make his story read like romance, until his fall at Lützen in

1632, when his prime minister Oxenstierna grasped the reins of government with a firm hand, and ably guided the fortunes of Sweden during the minority of Queen Christina. Under Vasa's rule, and until the Treaty of Westphalia (1648), Sweden was the great power of the north, and as such granted representation in the German Diet.

Christina's successor, Charles X, waged war against Poland, winning thereby sundry provinces; but during the minority of his son Sweden's affairs were mismanaged, and the country, as ally of Louis XIV of France, was involved in some of his many wars.

In 1675 the Swedes were defeated at Fehrbellin by the Great Elector of Prussia, a check from which they did not recover until Charles XII came to the throne (1697-1718), met the attack of Russia, Poland, and Denmark, and after winning many laurels proceeded to invade and conquer Norway. He perished, however, in this undertaking, and with him ends the male line of Vasa, the crown passing to the king's sister and her husband. This royal couple proved mere figure-heads, and their wars and peace-treaties were equally disastrous to the country, then a prey to rival political factions, popularly known as the "hats" and "caps." The conflicts of these two parties enabled the next ruler but one to increase the power of the crown, yet, owing to his extravagance and lack of principle, he was assassinated in 1792, and his infant son compelled to resign all right to the throne in favour of his uncle Charles XIII.

Difficulties between Russia and Sweden compelled the latter country to give up Finland, which since 1809 has been a province of Russia. The lack of an heir to the throne was another cause of trouble, which was ended by electing as crown prince Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals. This clever warrior took his new rôle to heart, led the Swedish forces against his former master in the coalition of 1813-1814, and in reward for these services Denmark was compelled by the allies to cede Norway to his adopted country.

When the Swedish monarch died in 1818, Bernadotte succeeded him as Charles XIV, and, until his own demise in 1844, greatly advanced the welfare of Sweden, where, nevertheless, he continued to be viewed with some suspicion and as an alien. His descendants, however, won the hearts of the Swedes, and still reign in peace over that country. King Oscar II, Bernadotte's great-grandson, and fourth king of this dynasty, came to the throne in 1872, since which date he has done his best for the country. His good sense and moderation deserve great commendation, and may yet prevent war between Sweden and Norway, the latter country having recently cut loose from her twin kingdom, claiming the right to manage her own affairs independently.

### Chronology of Denmark

B. C. 100 Migration of Odin, whose son Skiold founds Danish monarchy and gives his name to the reigning dynasty.

#### *Skioldung Dynasty, B. C. 70-1047 A. D.*

- |           |  |           |   |
|-----------|--|-----------|---|
|           | Frøde, Ragnar Lodbrog, and Sigurd, famous in Sagas.  | 1014-1035 | Canute the Great rules all Scandinavia and England. |
| A. D. 941 | Harold Bluetooth compelled to accept Christianity.   | 1035-1044 | Hardicanute.  |
| 991       | Sweyn invades England. Danish Massacre. Retribution. | 1044-1047 | Magnus the Good becomes King of Denmark and Norway. |

#### *Estridsen Dynasty, 1047-1412.*

- |      |  |      |   |
|------|--|------|---|
| 1202 | Conquests of Valdemar II.                      |      | and Sweden. Last Estridsen.   |
| 1380 | Olaf unites Denmark and Norway.                | 1412 | 1439 Denmark and Norway under Eric of Pomerania and Christopher of Bavaria. |
| 1397 | Kalmar Union. Margaret unites Denmark, Norway, |      |   |

#### *Oldenburg Dynasty, 1448-1839.*

- |           |               |           |                   |
|-----------|---------------|-----------|-------------------|
| 1448-1481 | Christian I.  | 1534-1559 | Christian III.    |
| 1481-1513 | Hans.         | 1559-1588 | Frederick II.     |
| 1513-1523 | Christian II. | 1563-1570 | Seven Years' War. |
| 1523-1534 | Frederick.    |           | Peace of Stettin. |

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A. D.	A. D.
1588-1648 Christian IV.	1746-1766 Frederick V.
1629 Treaty of Lübeck.	1766-1808 Christian VII.
1648-1670 Frederick III.	1767 Schleswig-Holstein annexed.
1660 Treaty of Copenhagen.	1807 Battle of Copenhagen.
1670-1699 Christian V.	1808-1839 Frederick VI.
1699-1730 Frederick IV.	1814 Peace of Kiel. Loss of Norway.
1720 Peace of Frederiksborg.	
Schleswig annexed.	
1730-1746 Christian VI.	
1744 Greenland annexed.	

### *Denmark without Norway.*

1839-1848 Christian VIII.	1848-1863 Frederick VII.
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### *Glücksburg Dynasty, 1863-*

1863-1906 Christian IX.	Vienna. Loses Schleswig-Holstein.
1864 Holstein War. Treaty of	1906- Frederick VIII.

## Chronology of Norway

### *Dynasty of Ynglings.*

B. C. 100 Migration of Odin, whose son Yngling rules over Sweden.	unites Sweden and Norway for the first time.
A. D. 840 Halfdan the Black first authentic king.	1350 Separation of Norway and Sweden.
885 Vikings under Rolf Ganger invade France, obtain Normandy, and found Norman dynasty there.	1380 Olaf fuses Denmark and Norway.
961 Harold of Denmark rules Norway.	1397 Kalmar Union. Margaret of Norway annexes Sweden and Denmark.
984 Eric the Red discovers Greenland.	1412-1439 Norway and Denmark under same kings.
1015 Olaf the Saint introduces Christianity.	1448 Norway and Denmark under Christian I. Sweden separates.
1028 Canute conquers Norway.	1497-1520 Norwegian kings enter Stockholm, are ejected for tyranny.
1042 Canute and Olaf's descendants dispute throne.	1531-1534 Two claimants. War.
1093 Magnus Barfod slain in Ireland.	1536 Reformation.
1261 Greenland annexed to Norway.	1563-1570 Northern Seven Years' War.
1262 Iceland a dependency of Norway.	1585 Eskimos sole inhabitants of Greenland.
1309 Peace of Copenhagen ends Danish War.	1611-1613 War vs. Sweden. Peace of Knaeröd.
1319 Magnus Ericsson Smek	1625 Thirty Years' War. Peace of Lübeck.

- A. D.  
1643-1679 War *vs.* Sweden.  
Peace of Brömsebro. War renewed. Peace of Copenhagen. War renewed. Peace of Lund.  
1709-1720 Frederick IV. Russia and Poland *vs.* Sweden. Peace of Frederiksborg.  
1721 Christianisation of Greenland.  
1733 Small-pox depopulates Greenland.  
1807 War *vs.* England. Bernadotte's campaign *vs.* Norway.

- A. D.  
1814 Norway ceded to Sweden after four hundred years' union with Denmark. Peace of Kiel.  
1814-1818 Charles XII King of Norway and Sweden. Bernadotte Dynasty in Norway and Sweden.  
1818-1844 Charles John XIV.  
1844-1859 Oscar I.  
1859-1872 Charles XV.  
1872-1905 Oscar II.  
1905 Norway separates from Sweden.  
1905- Haakon VII.

## Chronology of Sweden

- B. C. 100 Odin's race rules Sweden until six hundred years after Christ. Known as the Yngling Dynasty.  
A. D. 623 Ivar Vidfadme of Denmark conquers Sweden.  
740 Battle of Bravalla. Sigurd Ring's suicide. Ragnar Lodbrog king.  
794-1060 Dynasty of Bjorn Ironside. Nine kings.  
1060-1125 Dynasty of Stenkil. Four kings.  
1125-1130 Civil strife.  
1130-1250 Dynasty of Sverker. Eight kings.  
1155 Eric the Saint establishes Christianity.  
1250-1523 Dynasty of Folkungar.  
1319 Magnus Smek, King of Norway and Sweden.  
1363 Swedes dethrone king. Call Margaret of Norway and Denmark. Sweden annexed.  
1397 Union of Kalmar.  
1448 Sweden separates from Norway and Denmark.  
1470-1520 Kings of Denmark take Stockholm, are ejected.  
1523-1818 Dynasty of Vasa.  
1523-1560 Gustavus I.  
1560-1568 Eric XIV.  
1568-1592 John III.

- 1592-1600 Sigismund, also King of Poland. Civil War. Dethroned.  
1600-1611 Charles IX. Wars *vs.* Russia and Denmark.  
1611-1632 Gustavus Adolphus II. Wars *vs.* Russia, Denmark, Poland, Lützen.  
1632-1654 Christina. Abdicates.  
1648 Treaty of Westphalia.  
1654-1660 Charles X. Wars *vs.* Poland, Russia, Denmark.  
1660-1697 Charles XI. wars *vs.* Holland, Denmark. Battle of Lund.  
1697-1718 Charles XII. Denmark, Poland, Russia, *vs.* Sweden. Battles of Narva, Pultusk, Pultowa. Russian conquests.  
1718-1751 Frederick of Hesse. Hats and Caps. War with Russia.  
1751-1771 Adolphus Frederick.  
1771-1792 Gustavus III. Navigation protected. War *vs.* Russia. Viborg.  
1792-1809 Gustavus IV *vs.* Napoleon.  
1809-1818 Charles XIII. Loss of Finland. Adoption of Bernadotte. Coalition *vs.* Napoleon. Battle of Leipzig. Treaty of Kiel. Norway joins Sweden.

*Bernadotte Dynasty, 1818-*

1818-1844	Charles John XIV.	1872-	Oscar II.	
1844-1859	Oscar I.	1905	Norway	secedes from
1859-1872	Charles XV. Emigra- tion to America.		Sweden.	

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## XXIV

### TRAVEL IN SCANDINAVIAN STATES

#### DENMARK

COPENHAGEN (literally the Merchant's Harbour), the capital of Denmark, is reached either by steamship or by boat and railway, the tourist finding himself in an island town which was founded in the twelfth century, and which has been the most important of that section ever since. Its position on the Baltic Sea, fine harbour, and commercial industries, — in particular, its royal manufacture of porcelain and fine pottery, which is considered one of the best in Europe, — make it well worth visiting, aside from the fact that, owing to Thorwaldsen, the noted Danish sculptor, it is a great art centre.

Those who know Danish will enjoy performances at the Royal Theatre, where native plays are generally given, and where they can admire the fine busts of poets and actors which grace the foyer and vestibule. The city is intersected by canals, along which you can behold many picturesque scenes, if you follow them occasionally in going from place to place. One of the objects of interest to strangers is the Christiansborg on Castle Island, the oldest part of the town. The main part of this building is quite modern, the ancient construction having been destroyed by fire, and in the grounds of the palace are several statues designed by Thorwaldsen. It is his museum, however, which is the main attraction in Copenhagen to lovers of art, for here are collected many fine statues besides the beautiful casts of ancient masterpieces. Still, it is the work of Thorwaldsen himself which claims most of our attention, for this is avowedly the best place wherein to study his style.



The National Museum, with its collection of Danish curiosities, and the Art Museum, are also fascinating places, and everybody tries to visit the Church of our Lady, which owes its beautiful decorations to Thorwaldsen and to his pupils. The old Town Hall, the view of the Swedish coast from the Round Tower, — or from the above-mentioned church tower, — a visit to the Exchange, to the University, to the promenades, Botanical Gardens, and parks, will give you a fair idea of the Danish capital, although you can advantageously linger here long enough to study thoroughly the treasures in the new and old Glyptothek, the churches, and particularly the shipping in the harbours.

The Zealand coast is very picturesque; therefore a leisurely voyage from point to point is delightful for all those who like sailing on summer seas. This will afford the tourist many glimpses of local colour in fishing-towns, and enable him to visit sundry points of interest, such as the monuments erected to commemorate battles, the Summer Palace of the royal family, the various more or less fashionable bathing-resorts, and several charmingly located ancient castles and modern dwellings.

By taking the train northward, one can visit the popular resorts of Klampenborg and Skodsborg, or by running inland Slot Fredericksborg with its art treasures, Slot Fredensborg, Queen Alexandra's girlhood home, before reaching Helsingör (Elsinore). This town is built on a projecting point, at the spot where the strait is most narrow, and hence is the place where vessels were stopped in former days to pay toll. The most interesting place in Helsingör is the old Kronberg fortress, with its massive walls, fine courtyard, terrace where the Ghost of Hamlet's father walks, according to Shakespeare, and many romantic memories, including the legend of Holger Danske (Oliver the Dane), who is supposed to be sleeping in its secret vaults, whence he will arise when Denmark needs the help of his powerful arm.

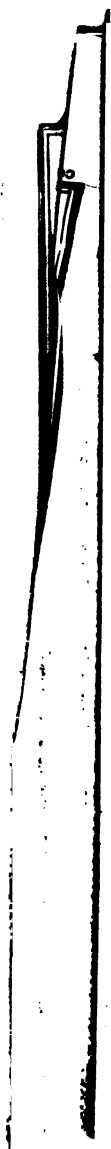
As the strait here is only three and a half miles wide,

there is a fine view of the Swedish coast, whither you can go in your own carriage by ferry, if you choose to do so. From Helsingör it is also possible to take a local steamer to Frederickshaven near the point of Jutland, whence, by boat or rail, you can visit Skagen at the northernmost tip of the peninsula, and thus learn to know the Danish sand-dunes and fishermen. Here, too, you may visit the ruined church and fine lighthouse, view the line of foam which marks the point where the Baltic and North seas meet in the Cattegat and Skagerak straits, and, if you care to peruse such cheerless annals, study the long list of vessels which have come to grief along the "Iron Coast" of Denmark.

One of the curiosities of the region is the Limfjord, through which one can pass from sea to sea, without rounding Denmark, because it cuts off the whole northern point of Jutland from the rest of the peninsula. By threading its tortuous way, you will pass many picturesque centres, seeing all you probably wish of the cheerless sand-hills of this barren section. A railway runs all the way down the western coast of Denmark, and as you proceed southward villages and towns multiply, and the country becomes more fertile and attractive. Along this shore there are many comparatively small islands, which form a fringe or breakwater all along the coast, while on the Baltic side are the three large islands of Fünen, Laaland, and Zeeland, the latter being the most important, because it contains Copenhagen and Helsingör, the two principal Danish towns.

From Copenhagen, as a point of departure, it is comparatively a short journey to the island of Bornholm in the Baltic, where you find great granite cliffs on the northern shore, fine beech forests in the interior, and where a driving-trip all around the island is a delightful experience which can be compassed in three days' time.

From Zeeland by ferry to Nyborg on the island of Fünen, and thence by railway to Odensee in its centre, brings us to the birthplace of Hans Christian Andersen, friend of our childhood, whose delightful folk tales linger





long in our memory. Here, too, is an old cathedral with quaint royal monuments, and a museum containing many interesting northern antiquities; so this is the best place, in fact, to study them. Railways spread spiderweb-like from Odensee to all the important shore points on this island, whence vessels of various kinds ply to the mainland, or to the various other islands of this group. Sailing around the Danish islands and in and out of the Danish sounds, we can see many quaint fishing-hamlets, and, by landing from time to time, walk or drive to points of vantage whence fine views are obtained, or visit the curious churches, quaint houses, and thrifty farms which are found in this region.

To Denmark belong also the picturesque group of Faroe Islands, and Iceland, the land of fire and ice, where the geysers, glaciers, and volcanoes are the chief natural attractions, while the simple population and fishing-settlements are intensely interesting to the few travellers who venture to such unfrequented regions.

## NORWAY

Most Americans who visit Norway avail themselves of the comfortable accommodation offered by excursion steamers, which thread their way in and out of the principal fjords, and after rounding the North Cape to enable their passengers to view "the midnight sun," bring their party safely home. In these excursions the opportunities to land and study the country, however lavishly granted, are all too few and limited; many tourists therefore prefer not to join such an excursion at all.

If you wish to behold the midnight sun, you must make your journey sometime in June or July, otherwise any part of the summer season will answer for a Norwegian trip, although August often proves rainy, thus depriving people of extensive views.

Walking, cycling, driving, and yachting tours are all delightful, and a combination of all these modes of locomotion will afford great variety to any tourist. Fisher-

men visit Norway for the sake of the salmon and trout fishing which its fjords and mountain streams afford, while huntsmen enjoy reindeer, elk, and stag stalking and wild-bird shooting, all of which, of course, can be carried on only during the hunting-season and when the proper formalities have been duly complied with.

Some of the attractions of Norway are the famous glaciers of Jostedalsbrae, Folgefond, and Svarteisen; the innumerable fjords which indent the coast, running often so far inland that it seems as if they were trying to reach the Swedish frontier; and the long belt of islands almost all along the coast, affording a sheltered waterway for the excursion steamers. There are great oyster, herring, cod, lobster, seal, and whale fisheries, which, by the way, support a large percentage of the population.

The fine timber which covers the lower slopes of the mountains, and which is floated down the streams in huge lumber rafts, is another great source of wealth, while the fertile and often sheltered valleys and grassy slopes enable the inhabitants to carry on agriculture, cattle raising, and dairy farming with considerable success and profit. Much of the fertility of Norway is due to the waters of the Gulf Stream, which flow along the coast and thus maintain a warmer temperature. Those who visit the country are therefore enraptured by the beauty and variety of the flora, even in the mountain regions.

The largest town on the south coast of Norway, and its most important seaport, is Christiansand, which is connected with New York by a line of transatlantic steamships. From here, either by sea or train, the most important places in Southern Norway can easily be reached. It is also the usual point of departure for an excursion up the picturesque Saeter valley, where fine fresh-water fishing can be enjoyed, and where one comes across many interesting villages, quaint churches, thrifty farms, with shepherds' huts up on the heights, which are occupied only in summer.

The leisurely traveller will most enjoy driving as fancy dictates through this region, where nature lovers will find

ample amusement. From Christiansand, by coast or other steamer, one can either proceed directly to Christiania, capital of the country, or describe loops from port to port and thus enjoy fine views of wooded coast and rocky islands. The sail up the Christiania Fjord is not the least enjoyable part of the journey, and should always be made on a fine clear day to be thoroughly appreciated. Along this fjord there are several pleasant and fashionable watering-places, and a lingering trip around the whole inlet is one of the most pleasant excursions which can be made from the capital.

After due examination of Christiania's parliament house, university, theatres, churches, and palace, — all of which are quite modern, — the stranger will linger longest in its art museums; in the mediæval fortress of Akershus, on St. John's Hill, for the sake of the view; or under the sheds which shelter the remains of the old Viking ships, the mere sight of which recalls romantic tales of these famous old pirates, who travelled "the swan road" so diligently, bringing home rich plunder from many lands. Near the city rises the Oscarhall, built for the king to whom Norway has just refused allegiance, and where another museum of local antiquities and curiosities can be seen. From sundry points of vantage all along this fjord, you secure fine views, often including the whole panorama of the city, and thus you obtain the best idea of its charming location.

An exploration of the neighbouring fjord of Drammen, which can be reached by land or sea, will show you some of Norway's picturesque rock-hewn roads and overhanging cliffs, and initiate you in the sudden twists and turns which all highways take in this country, giving you the while many delightful glimpses of farms, sawmills, waterfalls, etc.

Travellers on their way from Christiania to the Hardangerfjord have a choice of roads, one of which is along a mountain road, passing mining-villages, the cataracts of Tinfos, and the Hinterdal Church, — one of the few mediæval timber buildings still extant, for fire so often

destroys these edifices that most of the Norwegian and Swedish centres are composed of comparatively new edifices.

The winding road, picturesque valleys, torrent-like streams, and towering heights all afford magnificent prospects, and travellers always linger with delight by the Rjukanfos, — a waterfall which is magnificent in early summer, when melting snows increase the volume of waters. Romantic folk tales relate to most of these places, and if you have sufficient knowledge of the language, you can probably prevail upon your guide or driver to give them in all their native simplicity. In reaching the Hardangerfjord by sea, other fine views are obtained; but athletic tourists often prefer the mountain road, which, by the way, will enable them to compass an ascension of the Gausta, the highest mountain in South Norway, whence a beautiful view rewards them for the fatiguing climb.

The roads through picturesque Telemarken are simply endless, for everywhere, almost, fine vistas are to be obtained, and the life of the people can be studied in all its phases. The Hardangerfjord can also be reached from Christiania via the Telemarken Canal or by sea, taking in the various points of interest by the way, including the grand Lysefjord with its precipitous cliffs and strange phenomena, and the Stavangerfjord, whose many islands are beautiful and whose ramifications stretch so far inland.

From Stavanger, with its fine cathedral, again by water one proceeds to sundry small intervening fjords, and thence to the above-mentioned beautiful Hardangerfjord, whose glaciers and moraines are particularly interesting. Next, a visit to Bergen, one of the most important towns on the Atlantic coast and the terminus of the railway route from Christiania, will be greatly enjoyed by most tourists. From this point, with guides and proper preparation, the snow fields of Folgefond are visited, affording the novel experience of sleigh-riding in midsummer to those who are fond of the unusual. Besides, there are a number of fascinating waterfalls to be viewed in this





View of Stockholm from Mosebache  
pp. 312, 334.



Gudnangev Harbour, Nærofsford, Norway

section, where the thundering noise made by the Veringfos, for instance, is quite awe-inspiring, while the rainbow hues of the spray delight all who have the good fortune to behold them. These falls are, however, less high than those of the Skykjevov, which can be visited in the course of a picturesque drive along the Simodal. In fact, to name all the falls, lakes, and fjords in Norway would make these pages bristle with difficult names without giving any adequate idea of their manifold attractions.

The next fjord which indents the coast is the famous Sognefjord, with the largest glacier in Europe. It is reached by various intersecting cross-country roads from Christiania, by passing over the mountain ridge which separates it from the Hardangerfjord, by threading picturesque valleys, or by resorting to the steamer again and wending one's way through the fringe of coast islands which afford a series of delightful views. The land trip can be planned to include many of the dales or valleys, ascents of the points whence the best views are obtained, examination of quaint villages and buildings (such as the ancient Borgund church) along your way, with due attention to falls, streams, and lakes, which, with the rocks, trees, and flowers, form the chief attraction of this country.

Part of the picturesque trip between Christiania and the Romsdalsfjord is accomplished by rail, the road passing along Lake Mjesen, which is called Norway's inland sea and whose depth is something fabulous even in that part of the world. It also offers a peculiar kind of trout fishing for expert anglers. The railroad stops after penetrating some distance up the Gudbrandstal, and then the traveller has to resort to pedestrianism, bicycling, or driving, often in the gig-like native carriages driven by boys or girls, from whom much local information can be gleaned by a tactful questioner familiar with the language.

In the course of this journey visit the church of Lom, if possible, and make excursions to the dairymen's quarters up on the mountain pastures, being careful, however,

to secure a guide for such expeditions lest you should go astray. The longest railway line in Norway is that between Christiania and Trondhjem, which lies at the head of a fjord of the same name, and can therefore be reached by sea as well as by the cross-country railway from Sweden. These railways offer, beside rocks, pines, torrents, lakes, and waterfalls galore, glimpses of moorland and bogs before you reach the Dovrefjeld, or ridge-way which separates Northern from Southern Norway. If you travel through this section leisurely, you will frequent the mountain inns, or great farms, whose tenants are bound to keep the roads open in winter, to supply travellers with suitable accommodation and means to continue their journey, and to forward the mails from point to point without any regard to weather.

The innumerable fjords within fjords and other indentations of the Norwegian coast are quite bewildering to travellers, who in winding in and out of the tortuous passages marvel at the skill of the pilots on board the large or small vessels, which during the season visit every point of marked interest for strangers.

Near Sognefjord is the region known as Jotunheim, — the land of the snow giants, — so attractive to Alpine climbers because here they have an opportunity to make difficult ascensions of ice peaks and scale the highest summit in Norway, not being rewarded, however, by such magnificent and varied views as from the Alps. A series of excursions in this section might easily occupy a whole summer, for the innumerable valleys are all attractive; some, such as the Naerodale for instance, being world-renowned for their delightful scenery.

From Bergen many travellers go by sea to Aalesund and Molde, passing between many of the shore islands by the way. There are any number of fjords all along this bit of coast, which, although often unattractive at the point where you enter, become more and more picturesque — and sometimes gloomy — the farther you follow their windings inland.

The next great fjord after that of the Sogne is the

Nordfjord, along one part of which runs a road cut in the rocks not unlike the famous Axenstrasse in Switzerland. From the Nordfjord many delightful excursions are made either along the various picturesque valleys, up the dividing heights, or to the waterfalls and glaciers which abound in this region, and also, perchance, to the dazzling ice cavern at Brigdalsbrae.

One of the grandest and wildest sections in Norway is the Norangdal, where snow can be found in the valley even in midsummer, and where wonderful points of view are obtained by those who do not shun a little stiff climbing. This whole valley, ending in the Norangfjord, is particularly Alpine in aspect; but it is, after all, only one of the many delightful spots along this rock-bound shore which tourists like to visit. The contrast of the rich vegetation of the Molde valleys with the rugged rocks, dark pines, and glaciers is very delightful, and a leisurely excursion of the Romsdalsfjord and valley is sure to reward the tourist for his exertions. In general, the points famous in this region are visited by making short excursions from the steamer, which many travellers make their constant headquarters during a Norway trip.

The sea route from Molde to Trondhjem passes Christiansund (not Christiansand), another large seaport and important fish mart where you can see the various processes adopted for the drying, smoking, and packing of fish. From this port great quantities of this produce are exported, chiefly to Spain, where the many fast days imposed by the Roman Catholic Church assure a great consumption of fish. Trondhjem, at the mouth of the long fjord of the same name, is so sheltered that in spite of its being the farthest north of the large European towns, it is no colder than Dresden. The wealth of the people, the fine houses, the cathedral containing the tomb of St. Olaf, the great fortress, and the delightful excursions to be made by land and water in all directions, make this an ideal starting-point for a summer vacation, especially if you are planning a journey into the northern part of the country.

North of Trondhjem there are no railways in Norway, the roads are no longer so good for driving, and the arrangements for postal service and relays of horses are far less satisfactory. On that account few travellers visit the interior of this region, the majority confining themselves to the crowded steamers, which pause here and there, allowing their passengers to land for a glimpse of the various ports, and sometimes long enough to enable them to take short excursions to the points of interest or even to make ascensions of certain heights.

Tourist steamers make the round trip between Trondhjem and the North Cape in far less time than the usual mail steamers, which are often delayed by the amount of cargo they have to transport from point to point. There is so much to see, as you sail along, that as it is light all night at certain seasons, some travellers are loth to take the needful amount of rest, remaining on deck night and day. One great amusement consists in watching the sea-birds, which literally cover some of the smaller islands where they breed, where any quantity of eggs, squabs, and guano are collected, and where much eider-down is gathered. Besides, the sea here actually teems with fish, and whales are often seen, causing, of course, a thrill of excitement among the passengers, but the native crews are too accustomed to their presence to pay much heed to them.

Soon after leaving Trondhjem the steamer passes the peculiar island of Torghatten, which resembles a hat floating on the water and concerning which an amusing legend is told to account for the huge hole pierced through the rock, by means of which one enjoys a glorious view. Other picturesque points are the rocky islets known as the Seven Sisters, an island resembling a horse-man, and the view you gain of the Svarteisen, a great glacier which runs down to the water in some parts of the fjord.

It is only after passing the Arctic Circle — a fact which is generally proclaimed by a loud salute — that one beholds the midnight sun, which the traveller now sees

merely touching the line of the horizon to rise again immediately from the very point where it seemed about to set.

The Lafoten Islands, with their chain of mountains, either covered with snow or green moss, are noted for their vegetation,—as the climate is rather damp than cold, owing to the Gulf Stream on one side of them,—and also on account of the famous whirlpool—the Maelstrom—near their southern extremity. Although not by far so dangerous at ordinary times as some writers would fain make us believe, the opposing currents are sufficiently perilous at others to be anxiously shunned by mariners familiar with the long list of disasters they have occasioned. These islands are inhabited by a hardy race, whose customs, costumes, superstitions, and mode of life are all an interesting study for the tourist; and from the top of the Digermulen, one of the highest peaks, you obtain what is considered the finest view in the whole Nordland.

The amount of fish caught in this region seems perfectly fabulous even to those who have seen how the sea teems with them at certain seasons. A Swedish inventor, Ekenberg, has devised a machine, which is said to receive the herrings as they come from the nets, to sort them into four sizes recognised by the trade, scrape off their scales, cut off their heads, and split, clean, and wash them inside and out. During the short summer season the fishermen keep at work in relays, night and day, and this wonderful contrivance turns out 20,000 herrings per hour.

The farther north we proceed, the more the coast is cut up by fjords, into which tourist steamers penetrate just far enough to afford their passengers glimpses of the rocks and glaciers which hedge them in, before stopping at Tromsö, a thriving fishing, fish oil, and fur market. By making an excursion up the Tromsdal, travellers behold a Lapp Colony, with a herd of reindeer numbering some three thousand head pasturing peacefully in the neighbourhood. The lassoing of these animals for milk-

ing twice a week, the peculiar taste of their milk, and the manufacture of the reindeer cheese are on the whole more interesting than appetising experiences.

After visiting the Lyngenfjord, and making excursions in that picturesque but wild district, travellers visit Hammerfest, whose cod-liver-oil boileries fill the air with "an ancient, fishlike smell," and where the recently adopted electric lighting system must prove a great boon, as the people enjoy nights six months long to make up for the privilege of beholding the midnight sun. Still northern nights are preceded by the dawn and twilight effects known as the "Northern Lights," and even the winter darkness is sometimes dispelled by brilliant moon and star light and by the quivering, flashing lights of the Aurora Borealis, the most awe-inspiring phenomenon of an arctic winter.

After seeing all you like of the northernmost city on the globe, you proceed, again by steamer, to the North Cape, — which travellers often ascend, spending the night in a pavilion constructed there for that purpose, so as to behold the midnight sun.

Although most excursion steamers turn here and wend their way southward once more, a few continue along the Arctic fjords, which are bleak, solemn, and mostly deserted, although the fishing there is excellent also, and sea-birds abound. The few Finnish villages found in this region are located in sheltered places such as Varde, where eider ducks are plentiful, and where the inhabitants manufacture train oil in great quantities.

From Hammerfest any traveller can obtain a glimpse of the polar regions by taking the steamer, which, twice in the course of the summer, visits the islands of Spitzbergen. Strange to relate, the thermometer never sinks below the freezing-point there in midsummer; so, although in the region of icebergs and perpetual snow, the traveller does not suffer much from cold. But Spitzbergen is visited principally for the sake of its glaciers, although the beauty and variety of its flowers, ferns, and mosses delight the botanist and artist.



Once a great whaling-station, Spitzbergen is no longer frequented by fishermen, for the sperm whale has been entirely exterminated in that region. For fear of being caught in the ice, steamers never linger long in these northern waters; so the traveller after a short sojourn steams southward again to more hospitable shores, duly thankful that his lines have been cast in some of the pleasant places of our beautiful world.

### SWEDEN

Southern Sweden is reached by steamer or ferry from Lübeck or Copenhagen, the passengers landing at Malmö, a thriving fishing and manufacturing city, with fine city hall, pleasant park, and a fortress wherein Bothwell (Mary Stuart's third husband) was imprisoned before his removal to the castle of Bragsholm in Zealand, where he ultimately died.

The southern section of Sweden is noted for its fertility and industry, more than for its objects of interest to strangers, who are apt to pass hurriedly by its commonplace charms and few attractions, either to other towns along the coast, such as Helsingborg, directly opposite Helsingör, in Denmark, or Goteborg opposite Skagen. Goteborg, by the way, is connected with Sweden's greatest sheet of inland waters (Lake Venern) by the famous Gota Canal, noted for its wonderful system of locks. By following the course of this canal you can behold a mass of water tumble down the six falls of Trollhatten, one of the show places of Sweden.

By skirting the eastern or Baltic coast we can visit Karlskrona, the headquarters of the Swedish navy, and Kalmar, a very ancient town, noted for the treaty which united the three Scandinavian kingdoms for a century and a quarter. Its oft besieged castle is one of the sights of the town, from which one can also visit the island of Oland, whose cliffs, windmills, sand-dunes, quaint villages, and prehistoric monuments (especially those representing stone ships) are quite unique.

From Kalmar by sea to Westervik and thence to Norrköping enables the tourist to view two more important Swedish harbours, obtaining the while fine glimpses of the granite coast on the way to Stockholm, capital and centre of the realm.

Stockholm is also connected with all the towns previously mentioned by a network of railways, threading their way through and over a well-watered country, where many small lakes embellish the fertile landscape. The Gota Canal to Lake Venern, and other similar constructions from there to Lakes Vettern, Hjetmaren, and Malaren, connect Goteborg, Stockholm, Norrköping, and other towns, while another branch runs between Lake Venern and Norway, passing over the dividing mountains with great ease. Besides, all this part of the country boasts fine caves along the coasts, with waterfalls, lakes, torrent-like rivers, and dense forests of pine, beech, and oak farther inland.

Stockholm, "the Venice of the North," owes this name to its situation, for it is surrounded by water and islands on all sides. But instead of being built like Venice on piles, it is founded upon granite, which can be seen protruding here and there in the gardens and streets of the city. Although the foundation of Stockholm goes back to 1225, there are few old buildings to be seen, for great fires have swept away the wooden edifices, which only within comparatively recent times have been replaced by constructions of stone. The royal palace, where a wonderful collection of armour and costumes interests every visitor, the church where Sweden's kings lie buried, the statues and fountains on the public squares, the museums with their art treasures of all kinds — including many Swedish antiquities — and the steam-lifts which enable one to reach readily the heights above the city, whence a fine panorama of Stockholm is obtained, form its main list of attractions for visitors.

Those who have leisure to do so will enjoy excursions to the suburban resorts and parks, visiting also the royal villas or summer palaces, and sailing in and out of the

many winding waterways which extend between Stockholm, Lake Malaren, and the Baltic Sea.

From Stockholm also, either by rail or by steamer, one can visit Upsala, the home of the early kings, and long a centre of learning owing to its famous university, in whose library is treasured Ulfilas' celebrated Codex Argenteus or Gothic translation of the Gospels. Here too are the three great earthen mounds — the tombs of prehistoric kings — and on the place once occupied by the great Scandinavian temple now stands a village church. There is also a quaint Swedish tradition which claims that the human race first saw light in the "land of the Midnight Sun," and that Eden was located near Upsala.

From Stockholm by sea, steering either north or south, one can visit the Aland Islands or Gotland, stopping at Wisby, once a sacred spot where sacrifices were offered to propitiate the heathen gods, then a great Gothic trading-centre, and finally one of the three cities which first made a determined stand against piracy. The "Code of Wisby" is one of the most ancient maritime sets of laws, and Gothic merchants from this place claim the honour of having founded Novgorod the Great. Anyway they monopolised the Baltic trade, until shorn of many of their privileges by the Hanseatic League. The old town walls which used to protect the city now serve as a promenade, which has its peculiar charms, as have the many interesting old churches and picturesque points along the coast of the island, including the cavern of Hoburg.

Lake Siljan, which is also known as "the eye of Dalecarlia," — a region, by the way, noted for its picturesque costumes, — is in the heart of Sweden's fine agricultural section. By following the rivers which enter into this lake to their source in the mountains, travellers will be able to study peasant life in a most interesting way.

North of Upsala there are no very important towns to visit in Sweden, but the traveller who cares to penetrate into the mining and lumber region, to visit the innumerable waterfalls, rivers, and lakes, or even to pass, by means

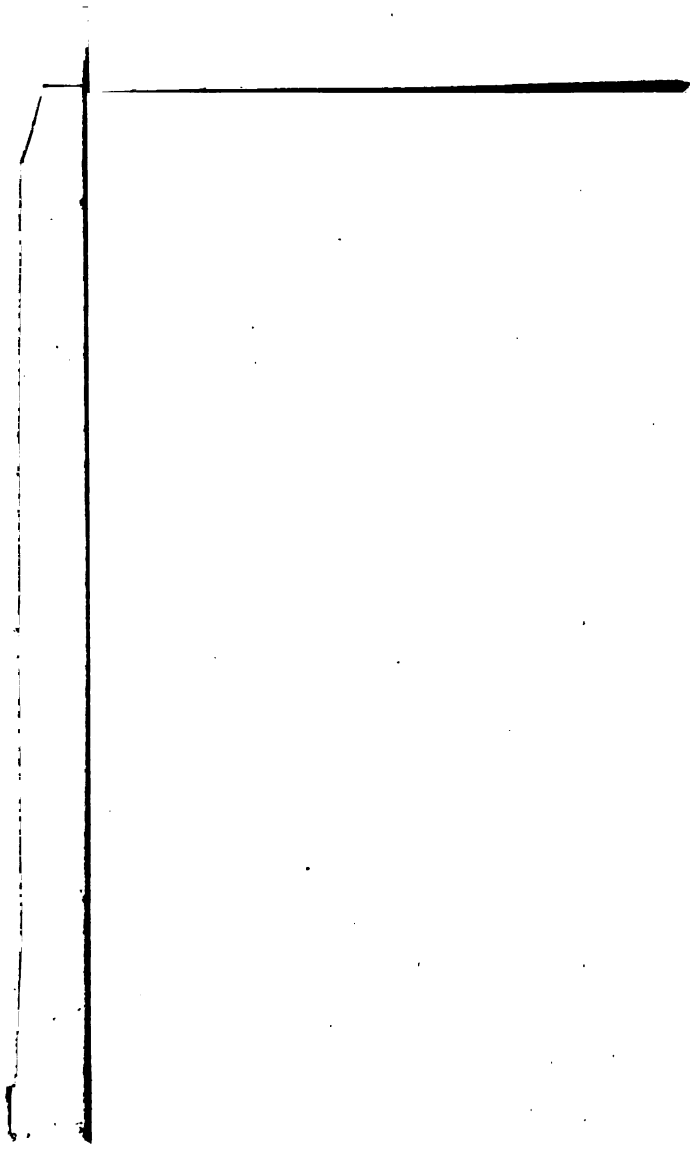
of coasting-vessels, from one port to another, will enjoy fresh air, fine views, and will be able to study various parts of the country, and to note the difference between the fair-haired Swedes of the South, who descend from the Goths, and the smaller dark-haired Lapps, who are akin to the Finns, — a race which once belonged to Sweden, but which since the beginning of the nineteenth century has been under Russian rule.

For those who enjoy hunting, fishing, and mountain-climbing, Sweden offers endless opportunities, and winter visitors can enjoy skating, sleighing, and skeeing for months at a time, as even at Stockholm, in the south, the waterways are often frozen for five consecutive months. In travelling in Norrland, or the northern part of Sweden, where hotels often do not exist, travellers are obliged to seek entertainment in the scattered farm-houses, where a single room is often occupied by family and guests both day and night.

Although railways are scarce in the northern part of Sweden, one line runs very near to its northern frontier, stopping at the famous iron mines of Malenberg, which visitors can examine at will, and where geologists will find ample material for study. This railway has its outlet at Lulea, one of the most northern of the Swedish ports, whence it comes right down through the peninsula, branching off only occasionally to reach other ports or important inland towns. The longest and most important of these branches passes right through a picturesque mountain region, crossing the ridge which separates Sweden from Norway, and comes out at Trondhjem, on the famous fjord of the same name, which is one of the main points of interests in a Scandinavian journey.

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## XXV

### HISTORY OF THE BALKAN PENINSULA

THE Balkan Peninsula comprises all the land on and south of the Danube, and therefore includes the states of Rumania, Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia and Herzegovina (which two latter now form part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire), Montenegro, Turkey, and Greece. There have been so many changes of occupants and government in this peninsula since the dawn of civilization that its history is a very intricate affair, which can only be touched upon in this sketch, but which can be studied in detail in the list of books appended to this chapter.

Occupied in turn by Thracians, Goths, and Huns, — all of whom were divided up into tribes differing slightly in name and custom, — the land known in Roman times as Dacia, Mœsia, and Illyricum, well deserves the name of “cockpit of Eastern Europe,” for battles have been constantly fought here for ages.

After the great Roman campaigns against the Dacians — commemorated by Trajan’s Column at Rome — came the invasion of the Goths, to whom the northern part of the peninsula was abandoned by Aurelian. The Goths in their turn, however, were crowded out by the Huns, against whom Christian Europe waged strenuous war, defeating their greatest hero, Attila, at the battle of Châlons in France. Charlemagne and his successors warred against the Avars (also Huns), whom the Serbs had been trying to hold in check ever since Heraclius had called them into the country for that purpose. It was in the eleventh century that the Turks gained their first foothold in the peninsula, which was in time to fall entirely under their sway; and in the thirteenth century we first



hear of the Tartars, who followed the track of the Huns, to whose race they also belong.

The people of the peninsula are a strange mixture of all these races, various elements predominating in different parts, so as to give each of the six political divisions its peculiar characteristics. The farthest north of the "Buffer States," or Balkan or Danubian provinces, is Rumania, a kingdom since 1881, and composed of the ancient provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. Bounded on the north by the Pruth, on the west by the Carpathians, — which separate it from Hungary, — on the south by the Danube, and on the east by the Black Sea, Rumania has a language and literature of its own, which show great kinship with the Latin.

The glorious past of the country, conquered by Trajan and forming part of "Dacia," is not yet forgotten, any more than the invasion of the Goths, before which many of the inhabitants fled to the mountains or across the Danube. It is remembered mainly because the subsequent invasions of Huns, Turks, Tartars, etc. did not succeed in entirely exterminating the original stock, which by the thirteenth century had recovered possession of Wallachia and Moldavia. These they were obliged to defend against both the Turks and Hungarians. When the fifteenth century dawned, the inhabitants of this section paid tribute to the Ottoman Empire, which gained absolute possession of the country only after much resistance and bloodshed.

Still, although subjected, they were in no wise subdued, and in the sixteenth century, under the national hero Michael the Brave, they recovered not only their independence, but such influence that his reign is considered the Golden Age of Rumania. After his assassination the Turks gradually recovered their ascendancy, and the country was first exposed to invasions by the Russians, who came thither under pretext of helping the people to throw off the Turkish yoke. A grand uprisal in 1710 resulted, however, only in the battle of Pruth (1711), where Peter the Great was defeated; and after that

Moldavia and Wallachia were ruled by hospodars (governors) sent by Turkey. The greed of these governors, mostly of Greek extraction, impoverished the people, who, finding themselves between Russians and Turks, often saw their country used as a fighting ground for these two powers. By 1812 Rumania had lost two provinces, annexed respectively to Austria and Russia; and as many of its inhabitants belonged to the Greek Church, Russia seemed anxious to incorporate the rest in her vast empire.

Proud of their traditions, Moldavia and Wallachia took advantage of the Greek struggle for independence, in 1821, to drive away their hated Greek governors, then elected some of their fellow countrymen to fulfil this office, and restored the use of their native language. In 1829, by the Treaty of Adrianople, both of these provinces were placed under a Russian protectorate, which lasted until 1856, when the Congress of Paris made them independent.

In 1861 Prince Alexander was placed at the head of the state, but deposed five years later in favour of Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, whose reform of the army proved timely, and permitted Rumania to aid Russia in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877. Rumania's independence was confirmed by the Berlin Congress in 1878, and three years later it became the kingdom of our day.

Bulgaria is situated south of the Danube and of the Rumanian province of Dobrudja, and is divided from east to west by the Balkan range of mountains. Including the main part of the Roman province of Moesia and a small portion of Thrace, it was the prey of sundry other tribes of barbarians before the Bulgars settled there and began to fight the Byzantine emperor Justinian. Soon after the conversion of the Bulgarians in the ninth century, their country reached its greatest development, under Simeon. He took the title of Czar, and for a time ruled over all the territory between the Black Sea and the Adriatic. But this first Bulgarian empire was not of long duration.

Still, after about threescore years of subjection to the Byzantine Empire, a new Bulgarian kingdom was established, which also had its brief term of supremacy, but was outshone by Serbia in the fourteenth century. When the Turks, under Amurath and Bajazet, conquered all this portion of Europe at the end of the fourteenth century, Bulgaria ceased to exist as a separate state, until it partly shook off the Turkish yoke in 1878, from then until 1885 only paying tribute to its former cruel master. In 1885 Bulgaria became entirely independent, and after calling Prince Alexander to the throne, and deposing him one year later, the people chose Prince Ferdinand of Coburg in 1887. Since then the "Peasant State" has been developing rapidly, until now it boasts of no inconsiderable army and navy, and is quite an important factor in Eastern politics.

Directly west of Bulgaria, and south of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, we find the wedge-shaped province of Serbia, once also a part of the Roman Moesia and occupied in turn by Thracians, Huns, and Goths before the Avars settled there in the seventh century. The Avars proved such troublesome neighbours that Heraclius invited the Serbs, a Slavic tribe, to come and rid him of these foes. The Serbs, once in possession of this tract of land, became Christians, and for two centuries had hard work to maintain their position. Not only were they threatened on all sides by barbarians, but even the Byzantine Emperor tried to rob them of some of their power. Still, in the middle of the eleventh century the great Servian hero, Michael, became king of the country, which under him and his successors expanded until under Stephen Dushan (1331-1355) it formed an empire including Bosnia, Albania, Macedonia, Thessaly, part of Bulgaria and of the Hellenic Peninsula.

This empire did not, however, last very long, for the Turks swept over the Balkan Peninsula, and defeated the Servians so badly at the battle of Kosovo (1389), that Serbia had to submit to Turkish rule, while its most independent citizens took refuge in Montenegro. For some

time after that, during the wars between Hungary and the Turks, Servia served as the habitual battle-ground. During this epoch it often changed hands, but in 1813 was officially awarded to Turkey.

This decision was, however, far from agreeable to the Servians, who, after sundry vain attempts, shook off the Turkish dominion in 1817 and elected one of their chiefs as king. In 1830 Turkey, which had been trying to recover possession of this province, finally recognised its independence, and from 1830 until 1875 there were sundry changes of rulers, the Servians electing and deposing their kings with great freedom.

During the war of 1877 between Russia and Turkey, Servia sided with the Russians, and after being recognised wholly independent in 1878 by the Treaty of Berlin, was formally enrolled among European kingdoms in 1882. Recently, there have been great political disturbances in the country, for after King Milan and Queen Natalie had abdicated in favour of their son Alexander, he incurred the displeasure of his subjects by his tyrannical rule and by his injudicious marriage with Draga, a woman much older than himself who did not enjoy an unblemished reputation. The intrigues of Queen Draga and the oppression of Alexander resulted in the shocking assassination of both rulers in 1903; and since then the exiled prince of a rival noble family has reigned there under the name of Peter I.

Montenegro (the Black Mountain), the farthest west of the Balkan provinces, is a very mountainous country with some seaboard on the Adriatic but no really good harbour. For a time it formed part of the Great Servian Empire; but when the Turks conquered that province (1389), the Montenegrins chose one of the Servian princes for their ruler, and, retiring to the mountain fastnesses where even now there are no good roads, they staunchly maintained their independence against the Turks. The Venetians were their allies in this brave struggle, and after the last secular prince resigned his office in 1516, Montenegro was governed by elective

prince-bishops, some of whom were able and enlightened men, doing all they could to educate and civilize a population composed chiefly of herdsmen and mountaineers.

The present royal family is descended from one of these prince-bishops, for since 1851 Montenegro has been a secular state. As the Montenegrins are a very loyal people, their king, Nicola I, is accounted the most absolute sovereign in Europe. Still, he lives in almost patriarchal simplicity in his small capital of Cetinje, where he receives few foreign visitors, for travelling in his realm is still a quite difficult undertaking. Nevertheless, he maintains friendly relations with the other European powers, and in particular with Italy, of which his daughter Helena is now queen.

Although in a former chapter we followed the fortunes of the Byzantine Empire until the fall of Constantinople, it may be well to remind our readers that what we now call Turkey, once formed part of Alexander's empire; then it was conquered by the Romans, who transferred their capital to Constantinople, thus making this city the centre of the "Eastern," "Byzantine," or "Greek" Empire. As you remember, the invasions of the barbarians and the conquests of the Turks little by little deprived the Eastern emperors of their realm, and when Constantinople fell at last into the hands of the Mohammedans (1453), the Eastern Empire came to an end.

The Turks, who were to give their name to the country they had conquered, had gradually advanced from Central Asia to Asia Minor, where they had entered the service of the Sultan of Iconium. Then, having become Mohammedans, they planned to conquer and convert the whole world. One state after another fell into their hands, and soon they ruled over all Southwestern Asia and North Africa, had seized many of the Mediterranean islands, and invaded Italy, Spain, and even France. In the middle of the fourteenth century they captured Adrianople, and having thus won a strong foothold in Eastern Europe, proceeded slowly but surely to conquer

first the northern section, and finally the whole of the Balkan Peninsula.

This conquest, which Christian nations tried to defer as long as possible, would have taken place much sooner, had the Turks always been united among themselves. It was also, doubtless, this disunion which prevented their advancing permanently any farther in Europe, although they made many attempts to cross the Danube, and besieged sundry cities north of their frontier. On one occasion they even stormed Belgrade, which was heroically defended by Hunyady.

It was from 1520 to 1566, under Soleiman the Magnificent, that the Turkish, or Ottoman, Empire "stood at its height of power and splendour"; for during that time Hungary was conquered, and Vienna unsuccessfully beleaguered by a Turkish host. In 1571 the battle of Lepanto, won by the Holy League (Venice, Spain, and the Pope), checked Turkish conquests; so this is often designated as the epoch when the decline of the Moslem power began.

In spite of constantly renewed attempts, the Turks have never succeeded in conquering either Austria or Russia as they wished, and little by little they have been driven back toward the south, one province after another being wrested from them. We have described how Moldavia and Wallachia finally asserted their independence and became the kingdom of Rumania; how Bulgaria and Servia also shook off the Turkish yoke; and how Montenegro — thanks principally to her topography — succeeded in baffling their efforts to subdue her. During these years the Turks also lost their hold over many of the Mediterranean islands, as well as over part of North Africa and Asia Minor.

In 1821 Greece, which had suffered much from Turkish oppression, rose up against "the Sublime Porte," and after a heroic resistance secured its independence by the intervention of the European powers, who would fain see the Turks driven out of Europe did they not fear that either Russia or Austria would fall heir to

Constantinople, and thus obtain control of the Black and Ægean seas.

This is the great "Eastern Question," in which England feels a strong interest; for she now practically owns the Suez Canal — through which her ships find the shortest road to India — and does not want Russia to become strong enough on the Mediterranean Sea to seize or control this road. Besides, Russia has already gradually advanced in Central Asia until her power now extends to the very frontier of India; and as the English know that their rival covets this peninsula also, they wish to restrain her as much as possible. Still, it seems as if the Turks would soon have to leave Europe, for even in Turkey itself Christians greatly outnumber the Mussulmans, and are very tired of the tyranny, extortion, and extreme cruelty of their Ottoman masters. Because of these conditions, and because the Sultan's finances are in a precarious condition, diplomatists have dubbed him the "Sick Man of Europe" and have predicted that he cannot last very much longer.

In the story of Greece we followed the fortunes of that country until its conquest by the Romans and transformation into the province of Achaia in 146 B. C. At first the new rule was very beneficial for the country, but during the civil wars of Marius and Sulla, Athens and Thebes suffered considerably. In the beginning of the Roman Empire, Greece prospered and was the centre of learning; but its very wealth and prosperity served as a bait for the barbarians, for we soon hear that the Goths laid Argos, Corinth, and Sparta waste and ravaged the whole country.

It was only slowly and reluctantly that the Greeks adopted Christianity, for which, however, their philosophers had in a measure paved the way; and when the Empire was divided, Greece naturally formed part of the eastern half. When the crusaders conquered Constantinople, Greece was portioned out into feudal estates and given to sundry Frankish noblemen, the principal one being De la Roche, whose family held the Duchy of

Athens for a whole century. The duchy passed from its next master into the hands of the King of Aragon, who sold it into a Florentine family, in whose keeping it remained until conquered by the Turks in 1456. Many of the Greeks, priding themselves upon their religion and learning, staunchly refused to submit to the Turks, preferring to leave the country, thereby scattering far and wide in Europe the accumulated learning of ages.

From 1456 until 1685 the Turks held the main part of the Greek peninsula, although the Venetians clung obstinately to some of the islands until 1718. During this time Venice made sundry attempts to reconquer Greece; and it was in the course of one of these wars (1687) that a Venetian bomb set fire to the Turkish powder stored in the Parthenon and wrecked the finest monument of Ancient Greece. Then, for a brief time, Greece was again left to the Venetians; but in 1718 the Ottoman Empire took entire possession of it, grinding it down by exorbitant taxes until the country was reduced to a pitiful case of anarchy and poverty.

This state of affairs fostered brigandage, about which so many romantic tales have been written, but which grew to such alarming proportions that it is only recently that some parts of the country have been considered safe for travellers. Still, the national spirit remained undaunted through all these political vicissitudes; and after sundry unsuccessful attempts the Greeks finally won their independence (1821), their principal leader being the patriot, Marco Bozzaris, and the funds for the war of independence being supplied by Greek sympathisers in all parts of Europe.

After several unfortunate attempts at government, the European powers again interfered in Greek affairs, and in 1830 declared Greece free. Two years later the Greeks offered the crown to the seventeen-year-old Bavarian Prince Otto, who, upon coming of age, delayed to give the people the constitution he had promised, and thus precipitated the bloodless revolution of 1843.

Discontent and bad government necessitated new



interference of the European states, and in 1862 King Otto was deposed, and a prince of the house of Denmark became George I of Greece, and of the Seven Ionian Islands, which since 1815 had been under a British protectorate.

Since then Greece has prospered once more, and it has become one of the dreams of the nation to see her recover her place as leader not only in art and learning, but also in politics. While Greece is still far from this goal, her progress within the last few years has been great; and even the disastrous thirty-one days' war against Turkey in 1897, and the large indemnity the country was obliged to promise to secure peace, has not quenched the hopes of the sanguine Greeks, who look forward to a not too distant future when their beloved country will again lead in art and science, if not by the size of her army and navy, or the extent of territory.

### Chronology of the Balkan Peninsula

Former Roman provinces of Moesia, Dacia, and Illyricum. Mixed races.

A. D.		A. D.	
7th cent.	Slavs appear.	1453	Turks take Constantinople.
9th cent.	Rise of first Kingdom of Servia.	1516-1697	Montenegro under sundry Prince Bishops.
10th, 11th cent.	First Bulgarian Kingdom overthrown by Eastern Emperor.	1572-1623	Ottoman power begins to decline.
1096	Bulgarians <i>vs.</i> Crusaders.	1697-1851	Montenegro under hereditary Prince Bishops.
12th cent.	Second Bulgarian Kingdom.	1709-1714	Charles XII of Sweden in Turkey, his intrigues.
1341-1356	Servia an empire under Dushan.	1718	Austria wins Bosnia.
1361	Turks take Adrianople under Amurath I (or Murad I).	1739	Bosnia and Rumania restored to Turkey.
1389	Servia and Bulgaria <i>vs.</i> Turks. Battle of Kosovo. Slavs defeated.	14th-19th cent.	Turkish cruelty and oppression in Balkan Peninsula.
14th cent.	Bulgaria subject to Hungary.	19th cent.	Revival of spirit of national independence.
14th-18th cent.	Rumania <i>vs.</i> Turks and Hungarians.	1804	Servia's struggle under Kara George.
14th-19th cent.	Montenegro, the New Servia, struggles <i>vs.</i> Turks.	1815	Servia's struggle under Milosch Obrenovitch.
		1817-1839	Milosch king of Servia.

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| <p>A. D.<br/>1830 Servian autonomy recognised.<br/>1842-1858 Servia under Kara Georgevitch.<br/>1852-1860 Danilo of Montenegro becomes secular prince.<br/>1858 Rumania under Charles of Hohenzollern.<br/>1858-1860 Milosch (Grand Old Man of Servia) restored.<br/>1860-1868 Michael his son king of Servia.<br/>1860- Nicola ruler of Montenegro.<br/>1868-1889 Milan king of Servia.<br/>1875-1878 Bulgarian atrocities. Russo-Turkish War. Shipka Pass. Plevna.</p> | <p>A. D.<br/>1878 Treaty of Berlin. Disruption of Turkey. Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria. Independence of Servia, Montenegro, Rumania. Partial independence of Bulgaria.<br/>1878-1886 Bulgarian War.<br/>1879-1889 Quarrels and divorce of Milan and Natalie of Servia.<br/>1889- Alexander. Servia under regency.<br/>1900 Nicholas of Montenegro assumes title of Royal Highness at Cetinje.</p> |
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### Chronology of Greece

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| <p>A. D.<br/>425 Legal separation of Eastern and Western Empires.<br/>425 Greece under Eastern Empire.<br/>446 Devastations of Huns.<br/>7th cent. Slavonic occupation of peninsula.<br/>1205-1261 Latin Empire at Constantinople. Duchies of Athens and Naxos. Principality of Achaia.<br/>1261-1453 Under restored Byzantine Empire.<br/>1454-1479 Turks <i>vs.</i> Venetians in Greece. Siege of Corinth. Athens sacked. Massacres.<br/>1645-1669 The War of Candia. Venetians cede Crete to Turks.<br/>1684-1696 Venetian conquests.<br/>1699 Turks cede part of Morea to Venice.</p> | <p>A. D.<br/>1714-1718 Turks expel Venetians from Morea.<br/>1770-1772 Revolt <i>vs.</i> Turkish rule.<br/>1821-1829 Overthrow of Turkish rule. Battle of Navarino. Independence.<br/>1830-1862 Otho of Bavaria, king. Deposed.<br/>1862- George of Denmark elected.<br/>1862 Annexation of Ionian Islands.<br/>1862-1881 The Cretan Struggle.<br/>1896 Revival of Olympic Games.<br/>1897 Crete asks annexation. War <i>vs.</i> Turkey. Disasters.<br/>1899-1900 Revolt in Macedonia.<br/>1899-1901 Provisional government in Crete under King George.</p> |
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### Genealogy of Othmanli Sultans

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| <p>A. D.<br/>1299-1326 Othman.<br/>1326-1360 Urkan.<br/>1360-1389 Murad I.</p> | <p>A. D.<br/>1389-1402 Bayezid I.<br/>1402-1421 Mohammed I.<br/>1421-1451 Murad II.</p> |
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*Othmanli Sultans at Constantinople since 1453.*

A. D.		A. D.	
1451-1481	Mohammed II the Conqueror.	1691-1695	Ahmed II.
1481-1512	Bayezid II the Mystic.	1695-1703	Mustafa II.
1512-1520	Selim I the Great.	1703-1730	Ahmed III.
1520-1566	Suleiman I the Magnificent.	1730-1754	Mahmud I.
1566-1574	Selim II the Sot.	1754-1757	Othman III.
1574-1595	Murad III.	1757-1774	Mustafa III.
1595-1603	Mohammed III.	1774-1789	Abdul Hamid I.
1603-1617	Ahmed I.	1789-1807	Selim III.
1617 (1618)	Mustafa I.	1807-1808	Mustafa IV.
1618-1623	Othman II.	1808-1839	Mahmud II the Reformer.
1623-1640	Murad IV.	1839-1861	Abdul Mejid.
1640-1649	Ibrahim I.	1861-1876	Abdul Aziz.
1649-1687	Mohammed IV.	1876	Murad V.
1687-1691	Suleiman II.	1876-	Abdul Hamid II.

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## XXVI

### TRAVEL IN THE BALKAN PENINSULA

#### SERVIA

COMING down the Danube, or by rail direct from Vienna, you reach Belgrade, the capital of Servia, which is situated just where the great river begins to form the boundary line between that country and Hungary. Belgrade is picturesquely located, but offers only rather modern attractions, because many wars have swept away most of the old landmarks. By following the course of the Danube from Belgrade to the small centre of Raduievatz, you will have had a glimpse of the greater part of the northern and of a bit of the eastern frontier of the country, passing besides through the imposing gorge which is known as the Iron Gate of the Danube, just at the northernmost point where Servia and Rumania come into contact.

The rest of Servia's northern and part of its western boundary is formed by the Save and the Drina, tributary and subtributary of the Danube, whose course can also be followed with pleasure and profit to Baina-Bashta or even farther. Only one railway line with three short branches cuts down through this mountainous country; so the traveller anxious to explore any other part of it is obliged as a rule to resort to horseback-riding. The railway follows in part the Morava valley, which curious travellers will find interesting throughout, for it leads them at its upper end into a mountain region where such peaks as the Golija-Planina attain a height of over 7,000 feet. Parts of these mountains are covered with heavy forests of beech and oak, for Servia has not been so entirely denuded of all timber as the rest of the Balkan

Peninsula. In these mountains bears and wild boars are numerous, thus affording sportsmen the opportunity of shooting "big game," provided they do so at the proper season and observe the usual formalities.

The Servians are mostly devoted to agricultural pursuits, however, only a small proportion resorting to coal-mining or manufacturing. One of the interesting local industries is the harvesting of the plums, and their transformation by desiccation into prunes, which are extensively exported from this section. Silk culture is beginning here, and sheep are raised in large numbers; so the people weave silk, and are already quite famous for carpets made principally on native hand-loom.

The Servians are fond of warfare, simple and often illiterate, yet inclined to be friendly and hospitable. They form an interesting subject of study in all walks of life, and artists find in their dress and occupations delightful subjects for sketches. Owing to long disastrous wars and to the ignorance of the natives, the antiquities of this region are comparatively few, but nature-lovers are sure to find plenty to delight them.

### MONTENEGRO

Montenegro is essentially a highland region peopled almost exclusively by mountaineers and shepherds. It has no railroads, few roads of great excellence, and it is often impossible to get from one point to another, save by what would be termed goat-paths in any other region. The tallest peaks of Montenegro, some of which attain to 8,000 feet in height, are in the northwest, but all the country is formed by limestone rocks honeycombed by the action of water. When the snows melt, rivers rush down on all sides, some of them washing away much soil, which they deposit in the valleys they have scooped in the course of time. One of the natural curiosities of the region is the disappearance of streams, some of which, like the Zeta River, reappear again on the surface farther on, while others are wholly absorbed by the porous lime-

stone rocks. The valley of Zeta is the widest and the most fertile in Montenegro; so it is pleasant to follow the course of this stream to its mouth in Lake Scutari, which forms the boundary of Montenegro and Albania. On the banks of this picturesque sheet of water tobacco and figs grow in abundance, while the vine and olive are cultivated all along the narrow strip of coast. If you care to study shepherds and mountaineers in their native simplicity, you have a fine chance to do so in Montenegro, and up in the mountains you will find many interesting flowers, with bears, wolves, and foxes by way of game. The queer stone huts, the scant patches of barley, wheat, and potatoes scattered here and there, and the meandering bridle-tracks, are places to visit by those who enjoy horseback-riding and do not fear hardships. Until recently the Montenegrins refrained from building roads, lest they should place their country in too easy communication with their foe the Turks, and thus enable them to become masters of a region which they vainly tried to conquer for about five hundred years.

The artist will find here a strikingly tall and handsome race, the women in particular being noted for their beauty as much as for their virtue. Women are not only universally respected, but can go in safety anywhere in the country. It is said that although the Montenegrins are excitable, they all, even the poorest, have the bearing and dignity of gentlemen; that theft and drunkenness are almost unknown in the country, and that the only persons in prison were locked up on the charge of telling ghost stories.

The traveller will find post-roads connecting Cetinje, Podgoritza, and Nikšić with one another and with the coast, and even if he only explores a small part of the country he will doubtless come away feeling considerable respect for these primitive people, as well as admiration for the country they love with such passionate devotion.



## TURKEY

When you cross the Lake of Scutari from Montenegro, you land in Albania, which is part of what was formerly known as Illyria. A region of mountain chains not too high to be covered with luxuriant vegetation, with many valleys, rivers, lakes, and plateaus, the country boasts of a delightful climate, fertile soil, and inhabitants noted for their good looks. Still, they are only partly civilized, and being very excitable and pugnacious are generally in a state of civil war or revolution.

The people here have a distinctive costume, the men wearing "ballet-dancer skirts"; they speak a language of their own, and are noted for their intense dislike of the Greeks, with whom, however, they otherwise have many points of resemblance.

The Albanians proudly claim such national heroes as Scanderbeg (1406-1468), who defeated twenty-three Ottoman armies; and although the Turks did become masters of the country after the fall of Scutari in 1478, the people were frequently almost independent. From 1807 to 1822 they practically governed themselves, but since then they have again been subject to the Sublime Porte.

The coast of Albania is very picturesque, but has few harbours, none being of very great importance. Its principal centres are Scutari and Monastir, the latter being the terminus of the only railroad which penetrates into the province of the same name. This railway, which starts from Saloniki on the Ægean, has also a branch running northward up the valley of the Vardar, and from thence into that of the Ibar on the other side of the divide. By following this railway to its terminus at Mitrovitz, you pass many Turkish villages, or at Uskup you can branch off and take the railway to Nish, in Serbia, where you join the direct line to Constantinople. This passes through Sofia and Philippopolis before reaching Stamboul, the Turkish name for the old Byzantium. After Constantinople, Saloniki is the greatest port in Turkey, whence steamship lines run in every

direction. Besides the already mentioned railway lines to Monastir, Mitrovitza, and Nish, there is a third, which, after running near the coast for some distance, suddenly turns northward to rejoin the trunk line between Vienna and Constantinople. From Saloniki curious travellers can make an excursion to the monastery of Mt. Athos, reaching it either by sea or overland, and there study one of the most interesting places and institutions in Turkey. Here, too, one can find some of the most ancient dwellings in Europe, besides traces of the canal which Xerxes had cut when he invaded Greece. From Mt. Athos, whence a glorious view of the Ægean can be obtained, it is possible to sail between the islands of Lemnos and Imbros to the Dardanelles, then up that wonderful waterway past Gallipoli into the Sea of Marmora, at the other end of which you will find Constantinople, the only place in Turkey which the majority of tourists visit.

“Constantinople stands on the finest site in Europe. St. Petersburg with its noble river, Stockholm on its many islands, Venice, the bride of the sea, cannot rival the ancient city of the eastern Cæsars. To see Rome and die is mere gratuitous suicide when the other Rome, the beautiful city of Constantinople, remains to be visited. There is hardly a scene in the world so replete with natural beauty, so rich in storied recollections, as that enclosed betwixt the Bosphorus and

‘the dark blue water  
That swiftly glides and gently swells  
Between the winding Dardanelles.’”

The best way to reach Constantinople is by this route, the next best coming by sea in the opposite direction, while the railway approach is likely to prove most prosaic and disenchanting.

To describe the manifold attractions of this city would require far too much space; if you wish a catalogue and description of its sights we refer you to Crawford, Hutton, Stoddard, or some of the leisurely writers who

have sojourned there a long time and are familiar with all its peculiarities. The street scenes, sails up and down the Bosphorus and the Golden Horn, strolls over the bridge of Galata, visits to St. Sophia, the Mosque of Sultan Ahmed, and the Seraglio, explorations of Stamboul, Galata, and Pera, — three separate quarters of the great city, — a walk around its fortifications, and such study of its many points and relics of historical events as you like to pursue, will agreeably occupy as many days as you are likely to pass in this interesting city. You will even find that “the unspeakable Turk” has two great virtues which could advantageously be adopted by many other nations, — that of personal cleanliness (due to the many bathing-establishments where a complete Turkish bath costs only ten cents), and the fact that he religiously abstains from all strong drink, and hence a drunken Turk is an anomaly.

A visit to the treasury will reveal more wealth and barbaric splendour of gold and precious stones than you could ever imagine, and the obelisk, — a memento of old Egypt, — the “blackened column,” — a reminder of Constantine, — the slender minarets, — there are about a thousand in Constantinople itself, from which the Muezzin chants his ‘call to prayer, turning toward the four points of the compass in turn, — will enable you to gain some idea of the city and of its successive masters and their tastes. The underground palace, or reservoir founded by Constantine, whose vault is upheld by three hundred and thirty-six columns, is well worth one, if not several visits, for it supplies water for many of the inhabitants, whose thirst is slaked either in this beverage, in a weak coffee, or some of the fruit sherbets for which the Turks are renowned. The many fountains, the gateways, the cypress-shaded cemeteries, — with turbaned tombstones over the graves of men, — the private dwellings — if you are so fortunate as to have introductions, — will afford you glimpses into the Turkish mode of life, and throw light on the history, character, and customs of the people whom you have come to study.

There are, of course, many places where "infidels" or "giaours" are not allowed to penetrate, such as the inner parts or private apartments of a Turkish home, some of the mosques, and the district of Eyoub — which with its sacred streets is named after Mohammed's standard-bearer, who was slain in an attack against the city about eight centuries before the Turks finally took it.

Trips up and down the Bosphorus, past the many small towns which give it the appearance of one continuous street, and a coasting voyage along the Turkish shores of the Black Sea to the mouth of the Danube, stopping wherever the spirit moves you, will enable you to see another part of Turkey, as well as Bulgaria and Rumania.

By landing at Bourgas and taking the railway, — which, after running some distance directly inland, thus allowing you to visit part of Northern Turkey, makes a sudden bend southward, — you come within easy reach of Adrianople, before rejoining the main route to Constantinople.

Bulgaria is a very mountainous country, the Balkan range crossing it horizontally, while the Rhodope Mountains lie toward the southwest, and are noted for deep valleys and lofty passes. Some of the mountains of Bulgaria attain an elevation of 9,000 feet, but as they have been greatly denuded, owing to constant invasions of barbarians and warfare for about two thousand years, they are now covered mostly with underbrush and scrub-oak instead of beautiful, primeval forests. The rivers, which have worn deep channels through the limestone rocks, empty mostly in the Black Sea, and down their current is brought much of the coal, gypsum, and metals extracted from the mountains.

The climate in Bulgaria, so mild in the southern part that there is a rainy season, is very severe in the north, where it often snows. It is, however, generally healthful, save along the marshy banks of the Black Sea, which are notoriously malarious. This country is often visited by sportsmen for the sake of the bears, boars, different

species of deer, as well as great variety of wild fowl and other small game.

An agricultural country, Bulgaria is divided up into small peasant holdings, the land belonging in reality to the government, although peasants may retain possession as long as they pay taxes. The primitive modes of culture, the use of the buffalo as beast of burden, the extensive culture of Damascus roses to manufacture the precious essence known as attar of roses, the fine fruits, — especially grapes which ripen without much care, — all tend to interest visitors in the life of this industrious people.

As many of the Rumanians and Bulgarians belong to the Greek Church, their monasteries and churches are one of the curious features of the country, where a few very ancient buildings can still be found. As the people are imaginative and superstitious to an unusual degree, they have all manner of weird legends and ballads connected with the places you visit, which it is therefore interesting to know. Jeremiah Curtin has translated much of the folklore of this region, where the belief is current that the architect Manole enclosed his wife in the walls of the monastery of Kurtea Argis in 1526 to prevent their ever falling down. Tradition relates that he and his men, finding that the walls would not stand, were favoured by a vision, and pledged themselves to seize the first woman who came to visit them on a certain day, each man promising not to breathe a word to his wife or any one else of this resolve. But, seized by a sudden fear lest their wives should be the victims, the workmen one and all broke their promise, the architect alone being true to his word. Imagine his anguish when his wife, the only woman unwarned, fell unconsciously into the snare. The ballad relates how, in spite of her prayers and tears, her husband walled her in, and how her voice was still heard lamenting when the whole band of labourers climbed to the top of the edifice to put the finishing touch to their work. But the accusing voice of the walled-in woman betrayed their crime, and in punish-

ment the scaffolding was all removed, and the men were left up there to die. One by one, crazed by hunger, thirst, or remorse, they jumped down and were killed by the fall. Last of all, the architect Manole, maddened by the sound of his wife's plaintive voice, sprang wildly into the void, and lay a mangled corpse at the foot of the building in which he had taken such pride. On the spot where he fell, there is now a fountain, said to have its source in his tears of remorse, for its waters are bitter and slightly salt. It is claimed that at midnight Manole's wife is still heard complaining of the cruel pressure of the heavy stones upon her tender frame, and that peasants shun the church at that hour. Similar legends are told of other churches, such as that of Scutari, where holes were left to enable the walled-in mother to see and nurse her little babe.

The trunk railway line to Constantinople passes, as we have stated, through Sofia and Philippopolis, the principal cities in Northern and Southern Bulgaria, while another line runs from Varna on the Black Sea, to Rustchuk on the Danube, which river forms the greater part of the northern frontier line of the country.

### RUMANIA

Of all the Balkan States, if it can justly be reckoned among them, Rumania is most thoroughly provided with railways, which enable you to reach all parts of the country easily. Besides, it is crossed by sundry rivers, including the Danube, which, after forming the greater part of its western and southern frontier, takes a long turn northward ere flowing eastward once more to empty in the Black Sea. A journey down the Danube is interesting until the lowlands are reached, when it becomes monotonous and desolate in the extreme and often detrimental to health.

The principal places to visit in Rumania are Botoshani; Jassy, where a great battle was fought; Galatz, between the Danube, Pruth, and Sereth rivers; Ploieschi;

Bucharest, its capital, — often styled the Paris of the East, — and Krajova toward the west. Of course, there are many other places of interest, but these travellers will doubtless prefer to find out for themselves.

## GREECE

Every year travel in Greece is becoming easier and more popular, and as every inch of its soil is historic ground, and its archæological remains afford endless material for study, it is naturally the goal of all who love to burrow in the past. To the landscape artist, owing to its climate, atmosphere, sea, and mountain effects and its wealth of wild flowers, it is a boon, while the figure painter finds he can study here to his heart's content classic types both in marble and in nature. While railroads are few, the fact that no point is more than forty miles from the shore makes most of the country accessible to the tourist, who secures accommodations on the vessels which ply from port to port. From these, either by recently built roads or on horseback, it is possible to visit all the points of interest in turn, for the country is no longer infested by brigands, and travellers are safe everywhere, except perchance along the mountainous frontier of Turkey.

Greece can be reached from almost any point of the globe, and never mind where you land, you cannot but feel thrilled by the recollections of her glorious past, and full of enthusiasm concerning all you are about to see and learn. To mention all the places of interest in Greece would entail a complete review of its historical, artistic, and literary life during thirty centuries, — a task of considerable magnitude, as you can readily perceive. We will therefore content ourselves with supplying a few hints, remembering that all who visit Greece doubtless do so because the desire has been awakened by all they have seen and heard about this wonderful country. The visitors who most enjoy the trip are those who go there to realise their studies, those for whom each name

on the map has delightful associations, and each fragment of ancient art a distinct meaning.

Many travellers, starting from Trieste or Brindisi, reach first the Ionian Islands, which, owing to long English occupation, are provided with hotels and roads such as European tourists like to find along their path. Ever since our school days, the majority of us have dreamt of "the isles of Greece," and when we behold them at last, it is with a sense of a cherished dream coming true. The beautiful location of Corfu, for instance, its ideal climate, luxuriant vegetation, and glorious views, all add greatly to the charm of a sojourn in this region, which, besides all these attractions, offers sumptuous villas (such as the deceased Empress of Austria's Achilleion) with rich art treasures, old convents, mountains with exquisite views, fortresses of note, ancient temples, picturesque villages, and drives through a most romantic landscape. It is not possible to trace here the various epochs of the island's history, which has been in turn under Greek, Roman, Venetian, Neapolitan, French, English, and Greek masters, and has sustained no less than two great sieges on the part of the Turks; but you will find all this very interesting matter to hunt up.

From Corfu, by another short sail over the blue waters of the Ionian Sea, we leave the double peaks of that island far behind us, and sail past the picturesque coast of Epirus, — with its memories of Pyrrhus, — to the islands of Leucas, Cephalonia, and Ithaca, the last recalling vividly our studies of the *Odyssey*. Recent excavations have brought to light there remains which are supposed to be those of Ulysses' Palace, thus lending the appearance of actuality to another myth.

In these islands we can also behold the natural phenomenon of sea waters flowing inland, to disappear in the clefts of the rocks, after furnishing sufficient power to run what is known as a Sea Mill. The ancient Castle of St. George, with its crumbling ramparts, and the various points of vantage from which exquisite views of



sea, mainland, and even of Mt. Parnassus, can be obtained, are all delightful parts of the voyage. Then, after sojourning on these islands as long as our time permits, we can linger at Zante, famous for its trade in oranges, lemons, olive oil, and especially in dried currants. Here, too, is a good place to study the ways of the natives, ere sailing on to Patras, past the scene of the celebrated naval battle of Lepanto in 1571, when the Venetian and Spanish fleets completely defeated that of the Turks.

Patras, the most important seaport on the western coast of Greece, is at the entrance of the Corinthian Gulf, which, owing to the canal cut through the famous isthmus, now offers the shortest sea route from Italy to Athens. Not far from this port, on the opposite shore, lies the small town of Missolonghi, best known to English readers as the spot where Byron breathed his last, when he came thither to second the efforts of the patriots Mavrokordates and Marco Bozzaris and help Greece to recover her liberty. A sail all along the Corinthian Gulf is delightful, but a leisurely traveller, knowing the ways of the country, and familiar with the language, would enjoy coasting all around it in some small craft, landing at every point of interest in turn.

Still, as it is only occasionally that a mortal can follow such a rambling route, it behooves most travellers to enjoy what they can of the Peloponnesus, where excavations at Mycenæ, Tiryns, Argos, Sparta, Messina, and Olympus will doubtless claim much of their time and attention. At each of these historical spots they will find museums, filled with objects of interest relating to bygone times, and almost at every point they will come across members of the American or English commissions, which, in connection with the Greek government, are diligently employed in recovering all they can of the past, thus throwing much light not only upon the history of the country, but even upon what has long been deemed mere legend or fable.

After a due pause at Corinth, where the ruins of the

Acro Corinthus will prepare us for those of the Areopagus, and where remains of Greek temples and Roman arches will prove very fascinating, we can proceed by land or by sea to Athens, still the capital and centre of Greece. The land journey will bring us through Megara and Eleusis, names to conjure with ; while a sea trip may include Ægina with its wonderful ruined temples, and Salamis, famous for the great naval victory over the Persians, whose king beheld the destruction of his fleet from the opposite height on the mainland.

On approaching Athens by sea, it is customary to land at the Piræus, the famous old port, which has within recent times recovered much of its old prestige. Although this town, like Patras, is mostly modern, there are many antiquities to be visited by those who enjoy such things, and by driving from thence to Athens one passes along a road formed by the top of one of the historical Long Walls.

Athens, like Rome, consists of a modern city, built around and beside the classic remains of the old town, fragments of which, in spite of all they have undergone, are still beautiful, and still prove that modern art has never yet equalled that of Ancient Greece. After a brief view of the present town with its palace and churches, travellers linger long in the various museums, devoting the main part of their time to the famous temples of Zeus, to the theatres of Dionysius, the monument of Lysicrates, to the Odeion, the Agora, the Areopagus, and especially to the Acropolis crowned by the Parthenon, the grandest ruins in the world. On this height one can also view the Temple of Victory, the remains of the Propylæa, with the Erechtheum, and the Acropolis Museum.

This does not, however, by any means exhaust the list of the sights of Athens, for there are still the Stoa and Arch of Hadrian, the Stoa of Attalus, the Tower of the Winds, the well-preserved Theseum, the burial grounds with their monuments and traces of inscriptions or quaint customs, and, if you care to go farther .



**The Acropolis, Athens**  
pp. 47, 324, 342, 450, 458, 464



Parthenon Frieze, Priest receiving the Peplus, British  
Museum, London

pp. 47, 342, 343, 421, 440

afield, delightful excursions to the Palace Gardens, to Mts. Lycabettus and Hymettos, places where the luxuriant flora attracts the bees which store up the famous Greek honey. Pentilicon with its glorious view and rich quarries, the battlefields of Marathon, Plataea, and Leuctra also afford pleasant excursions, and by pushing on farther we can visit the island of Eubœa and the Sporades. Then, return via Tanagra, famous for its terracotta figurines; visiting Thebes, whose eventful history we recall with interest; and stopping long enough at Delphi to examine the antiquities recently unearthed there. After short excursions to Parnassus and the neighbouring mountains, we may press on to the historic pass of Thermopylæ, where a great battle was fought, on our way still farther north to view Pelion, Ossa, and Mt. Olympus, the fabled home of the Greek gods.

Those who sail in and out of the Ægean Sea to visit Cyclades in turn, will doubtless find much to interest them at Melos, where the famous Venus of the Louvre was discovered; at Naxos, noted for its wine and the story of Bacchus; at Paros, whence fine marble was procured for the masterpieces of sculpture, and at Delos, where recent excavations have revealed great art treasures probably fashioned by Phidias and Praxiteles. Some travellers may have leisure to visit also the islands along the coast of Asia Minor, where they will find more Greek remains; for Cyprus, Rhodes, Crete, and Cythera figure frequently in classic literature, and have continued to play an important part in history to this day.

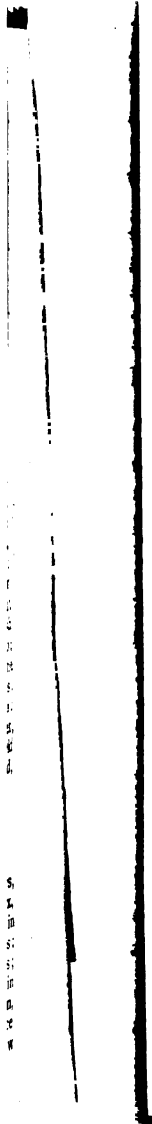
Everywhere we come across matters of interest, for even if we do not care to immerse ourselves in the past, Greece has a fascinating present as well, and its picturesque scenery, and inhabitants of various races and religions, offer ample amusement to tourists. By avoiding the rainy season in midwinter, — which makes the roads almost impassable, — and the heat of midsummer, — which the lack of shade trees intensifies, — travellers will find the country most delightful, and will be glad to linger as long as possible in this charming region.

### The Balkan Peninsula. Travel

**Abbott**, Tale of a Tour in Macedonia; **Amicis**, Constantinople; **Baedeker**, Constantinople and the Troad; **Basmajian**, Social and Religious Life in the Orient; **Black**, Constantinople; **Blackwood**, Narrative of Personal Experiences on the Bosphorus during the Crimean War; **Boyce**, Nigh unto the End; **Brassey**, Sunshine and Storm in the East; **Butterworth**, Zigzag Journeys in the Orient; **Campbell**, Turks and Greeks; **Champney**, Three Vassar Girls in Russia and Turkey; **Clark**, The Arabs and the Turks; **Colbeck**, A Summer Cruise; **Cox**, Diversions of a Diplomat; **Sunbeams**; **Creagh**, Armenians, Koords, and Turks; Over the Borders of Christendom and Islamism; **Cutts**, Christians and the Crescent; **Davis**, Anatolia; Life in Asiatic Turkey; **Denton**, The Christians of Turkey; **Dodd**, The Palaces of the Sultan; **Elliott**, Diary of an Idle Woman in Constantinople; **Farley**, Egypt, Cyprus, and Asiatic Turkey; Modern Turkey; Turks and Christians; **Field**, The Greek Islands; Turkey after the War; From the Lakes of Killarney to the Golden Horn; **Garnett**, Turkish Life in Town and Country; The Women of Turkey; **Gautier**, Constantinople; **Geary**, Through Asiatic Turkey; **Halil Haled**, Diary of a Turk; **Hamlin**, Among the Turks; **Jerningham**, To and from Constantinople; **Kinglake**, Eothen; **Knight**, Albania; **Longfellow**, Poems of Places; **Loyson**, Through the Land of Islam; **Mackenzie**, Travel in Turkey, etc.; **Menzies**, Turkey, Old and New; **Montague**, Letters from Constantinople; **Müller**, Letters from Constantinople; **Murray**, Handbook for Tour in Turkey; Constantinople; **Oliphant**, The Land of Gilead; **Poole**, People of Turkey; **Prime**, Forty Years in the Turkish Empire; **R. H. R.**, Rambles in Istria, Dalmatia, Montenegro; **Ramsay**, Impressions of Turkey; **Riley**, Mount Athos, The Mountain of the Monks; **Spry**, My Life on the Bosphorus; **Stoddard**, Lectures: Constantinople; **Sykes**, Dar-ul-Islam; **Symons**, Cities; **Thielmann**, Journey in Turkey, etc.; **Tozer**, Turkish Armenia, etc.; **Walker**, Eastern Life and Scenery; Old Tracks and New Landmarks; **Warner**, The Levant; **Weld**, Sacred Palmland.

### Greece and Isles. Travel

**Baedeker**, Greece; **Baker**, Cyprus as I saw it; **Barrows**, The Isles and Shrines of Greece; **Bent**, The Cyclades; **Bertaux**, Daphni, Convent of Athens; **Brassey**, Sunshine and Storm in Eastern Cruises to Cyprus, etc.; **Butler**, The Story of Athens; **Cesnola**, The History, Treasures, and Antiquities of Salamis; Cyprus and its Ancient Cities; **Colbeck**, A Summer Cruise in The Waters of Greece, etc.; Cyprus and Asiatic Turkey; **Dixon**, British Cyprus; **Edmonds**, Fair Athens; **Farrar**, Tour in Greece in 1880; **Field**, The Greek Islands; **Fisher**, Cyprus our New



# HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE



Colony; **Freeman**, Studies of Travel; **Geldert**, Folklore of Modern Greece; **Gissing**, By the Ionian Sea; **Haggard**, A Winter Pilgrimage (Cyprus); **Hanson**, The Land of Greece; **Harrison**, Greek Vignettes; **Horton**, In Argolis; **Longfellow**, Poems of Places; **Macmillan**, Greek Mythology; A Ride across the Peloponnesus; **Mahaffy**, Greek Life and Thought; Rambles and Studies in Greece; Greek Pictures; **Mallock**, In an Enchanted Island (Cyprus); **Manley**, Ithaca or Leucas; **Murray**, Greece (Handbook); Olympic Games B. C. 776 to A. D. 1896; **Palmer**, Grecian Days; **Pittman**, Mission Life in Greece, etc.; **Reeve**, How we Went, and What we Saw; **Revanstein**, Cyprus, its Resources, etc.; **Richardson**, Vacation Days in Greece; **Sandys**, An Eastern Vacation in Greece; **Scott**, Our Home in Cyprus; **Sergeant**, New Greece; **Smith**, Glimpses of Greek Life and Scenery; Cretan Sketches; Through Cyprus; **Snider**, Walk in Hellas; **Stillman**, On the Track of Ulysses; **Stoddard**, Lectures, Athens; **Symonds**, Sketches and Studies in Italy and Greece; **Talbot**, Greece and the Greeks; **Tozer**, The Islands of the Aegean Sea; **Tuckerman**, The Greek of To-day; **Waddington**, Visit to Greece; **Young**, Five Weeks in Greece.

## XXVII

### HISTORY OF RUSSIA

THE earliest mention of the Russians is that of the Greek poets, who describe the Hyperboreans as supernaturally good and gentle beings, enjoying blissful lives that lasted a thousand years. Byzantine annals, on the other hand, represent these same people as cruel and filthy, making war continually and having no virtue save that of exercising hospitality to strangers. These conflicting accounts therefore cast very little light upon the various tribes of "Scythians" who ranged about the wide steppes at will, until at last their territory was invaded by foreigners coming both from the north and from the south.

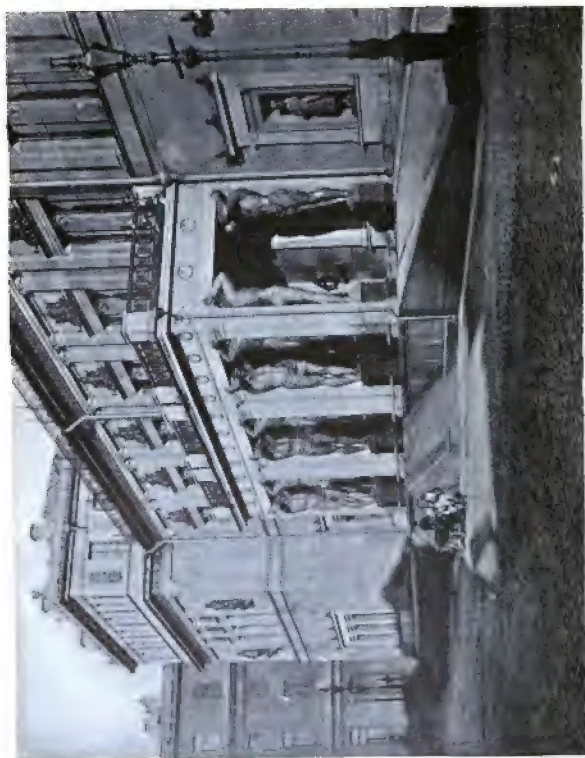
The invaders who entered Russia over the Caucasus were Moslems, while those who entered from the north were Northmen wanderers (Varangians) who penetrated far inland. The Gulf of Finland, the Neva River, the lakes of Ladoga and Ilmen, and the Volkhov River form a natural waterway to the very heart of the country, for only a strip of land intervenes before you strike the Volga, the great water-route to the Caspian Sea and thus to the centre of Asia.

It was in 862 that the Varangian Rurik came with his brothers to Novgorod, then the great trading-mart between these two noted waterways. Here he was invited to rule over a people weary of dissensions and disunion. Rurik and his brothers governed at first separate provinces, but the premature death of his relatives enabled Rurik to become sole ruler, his capital being at Novgorod, the trade centre of the country. As Rurik bestowed estates and power upon the Scandinavians who helped him gain his exalted position, the nobles or courtiers were all of alien race. True to their native instincts,



**Sultan Ahmed's Mosque, Constantinople**

pp. 335, 450



**Hermitage, St. Petersburg**

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they were always ready for fighting, adventure, and conquest. To such men the city of Constantinople with the accumulated treasures of centuries naturally seemed a desirable prize; so before the dawn of the eleventh century, we hear of no less than four unsuccessful attempts to capture the imperial city.

Rurik's son is said to have transferred the seat of government to Kiev, which for the next three centuries was the capital of Russia, and which is still considered a particularly holy city because St. Andrew is popularly supposed to have set up his cross on its heights, although in reality Christianity gained a foothold in Russia only in the tenth century.

Because this religion came to Russia from Byzantium, it naturally reached the country in its Greek form, and when the Turks finally took Constantinople and that city ceased to be the head of the Greek Church, Russia boldly assumed this proud position, which it has maintained ever since. According to the Czar and his people, the Greek or Russian Church is orthodox, as are its offshoots, the Bulgarian, Servian, Wallachian, and Moldavian churches, but the forms of the Greek religion practised by the Armenians, Abyssinians, Nestorians, Maronites, Jacobites, and Copts are viewed as unorthodox. It is estimated that there are now some 90,000,000 members of the orthodox church, mostly Russians, and as they are very devout and superstitious and obey their priests blindly, you can imagine how influential the church is in all secular affairs. Were the clergy all that clergy should be, this influence would be in the right direction, but as such is not the case, the Russian Church will have to lose its authority or undergo considerable reform before Russia as a whole can attain the freedom and general level of intelligence and education of the other European nations.

Vladimir, a great-grandson of Rurik and the first Christian monarch of Russia, ordered the baptism of his subjects under penalty of death, a decree which resulted in the sudden, although far from thorough, con-

version of his people. This Vladimir, the patron saint of Russia, is also noted as the founder of Moscow (1147), and he greatly extended his sway by checking the feuds and petty wars of the various independent princes. His son Yaroslav continued the good work he had begun, publishing a code of laws which is still preserved.

Nothing short of a common and pressing danger could, however, bring about anything like unity among the many Russian princes, who banded together only when called upon to oppose the terrible Tartar invasion of Genghis Khan. In spite of their efforts, however, they were completely defeated on the Don in 1224, and during the next few years Tartars swept all over the country, burning and destroying everything — including the cities of Moscow and Kiev — until they were defeated by the Russians in the great battle of Liegnitz (1241) in Moravia.

In fact, after this check the Tartars were forced to retreat again beyond the Volga, where they founded Seray, the city of the Golden Horde; but they still continued to overawe the Russians, who for the next two hundred years were thus under the rule of tyrants who retarded their progress to such an extent that Russia is still counted far behind the rest of Europe in civilization.

But, after Alexander had won his famous victory on the Neva over the Swedes, the Russians took courage to attack the Tartars and defeated them twice. These defeats, however, only egged the Tartars on to seek revenge by again invading the country and laying Moscow in ashes a second time. A little later, Ivan III the Great succeeded not only in throwing off the Tartar yoke, but in uniting Novgorod, Moscow, and other cities, so as to form a compact state. Besides, he improved the laws, regulated taxes, and adopted the Byzantine double eagle as his standard when he married a princess of Constantinople and established diplomatic relations with the Sultan, Bayezid II.

Moscow was henceforth centre of the realm, which was further extended by the subjection of the Lithu-

anians and Tartars, and when Ivan IV the Terrible assumed the title of Tsar (Czar or Cæsar), 37,000 square miles of territory were either tributary or under his direct sway, and commercial relations had been established not only with the East, but also with the English. Still, toward the end of his reign, the Tartars again raided Russia, burning Moscow a third time, and the great Russo-Tartar feud continued more or less actively until the reign of Peter the Great.

It was under this monarch that St. Petersburg was founded (1703), and that war again broke out between Turkey and Russia, the pretext being this time that the Sultan refused to give up Charles XII of Sweden, who took refuge with him after being defeated by the Czar at Pultova (1709). In this campaign, however, Peter was worsted on the Pruth, and was saved from utter annihilation only by the wit and bribes of his wife, Catherine I. Still, although beaten, Russia did not give up her long cherished hope of conquering Turkey, and thus becoming mistress of Constantinople and of the coveted outlet from the Black Sea.

Peter did not live long enough to carry out his intention to wipe out his defeat on the Pruth, but his successors made sundry attempts in that direction, — attempts which somewhat extended their territory without being wholly successful. Peter's wife and daughter, Catherine I and Catherine II, both occupied the throne after him, and it was under the latter that Western civilization spread rapidly, and that poor Poland was ruthlessly divided by Austria, Prussia, and Russia, the latter country receiving the lion's share of the spoils.

In the beginning of the nineteenth century Czar Alexander I abolished serfdom in the Baltic provinces, and having joined the coalition against Napoleon, shared in the defeat of Austerlitz, which is also known as the Battle of the Three Emperors (1805). Two years later, at Tilsit, he and Napoleon swore an eternal friendship — which lasted about five years — and arranged to divide the world between them. Finland was Russia's first

accession of territory after this agreement; then after six years' warfare with Turkey, the Treaty of Bucharest (1812) awarded her the strip of land between the Dniester and the Pruth.

The "eternal friendship" of Napoleon and Alexander having suffered shipwreck, the French invaded Russia, reaching Moscow only to find that the city had been set on fire and that it would be impossible to winter there as they had planned. Thus, too late in the season, began the awful retreat which is so well known. After Napoleon's final downfall, the Congress of Vienna restored the Duchy of Warsaw to Russia; but as Alexander's fine schemes for the improvement of his country could not be carried out, he died a disappointed man.

His brother Nicholas made war against Persia and thus won Armenia; then he sent his fleet to take part in the battle of Navarino (1827), thereby triumphing over his hereditary enemies, the Turks, from whom another war had wrested Greece, the protectorate of the Caucasus region and that of Moldavia and Wallachia.

Russian rule, however, did not prove grateful to some of these conquered nations; for we hear of rebellions in Poland and in the Caucasus which had to be put down by armed force. Besides these wars the Russians lent their aid to the Hungarians in their revolt against Turkey, and made a new attempt to drive the Turks out of Europe,—an attempt which might have succeeded had not England, France, and Sardinia sided with Turkey in the Crimean War, which was concluded by the Treaty of Paris in 1856. By this war Russia forfeited her protectorate over the Danubian provinces, and learned that the other European powers were not likely to allow her to take possession of Turkey, because the coveted privilege of running her fleets out into the Mediterranean might result in making her, as a naval power, of sufficient importance to dictate terms to all the other states.

In 1861 Alexander II abolished serfdom throughout his realm and effected many reforms which do not seem to have been wholly satisfactory anywhere; for since



then there have been many revolutionary (Nihilistic) attempts, as well as another uprising in Poland (1863). It was during the reigns of Nicholas and Alexander II that Russia extended her frontiers to the Amur, occupied all the Trans-Caucasian region, and penetrated so far south in Central Asia that she actually became a menace to England in India.

The last Russo-Turkish war, in 1878, might also have resulted in the seizure of Constantinople had not the European powers again interfered, dictating, as it were, the terms of the Treaty of San Stefano (1878). Since then Nihilism has grown rapidly in Russia, notwithstanding the exertions of the police and the many imprisonments and wholesale banishments to Siberia. As Alexander II was killed by a Nihilist bomb in 1881, his successor began the construction of his projected Trans-Siberian Railway in 1891, and concluded an alliance with France as offset to the Triple Alliance formed by Austria, Germany, and Italy.

Alexander III, like his predecessors, had much trouble with "the Semitic question," for Jews are very numerous in Russia, where they form nearly all the middle, or merchant and manufacturing class. In fact, it has been said that there are only two real Russian classes, — that of the aristocrats, descendants of the Varangians, or Scandinavians, and that of the peasants (Moujik), the conquered or slave race of the country. As the Jews are now restricted to a certain belt of the country, hosts of them constantly emigrate in hopes of finding free scope elsewhere.

When Alexander III died in 1894, the present Czar — master of one-seventh of the habitable world — came to the throne. Under his rule Russia at first made great progress. He obtained at the close of the China-Japan War of 1894-1895 a twenty-five-year lease of the peninsula of Kwangtung, and in consequence thereof built the Manchurian Railway, a branch of the great Siberian trunk-road.

Russia entered Manchuria ostensibly to protect this

railway, and when other powers objected to this move for fear that she would take final possession of the country, declared that she would withdraw just as soon as it was quite safe to do so. In 1903 Japan intimated that it was more than time that Russia should keep this promise, and as no move was made to vacate Manchuria, war broke out between the two countries in 1904, — a war which proved entirely to the advantage of the Japanese, whose cause was greatly aided by internal troubles in Russia. These home difficulties resulted in considerable bloodshed, and at times seemed to threaten a great revolutionary movement in Russia. In the hopes of checking further hostilities, President Roosevelt recently made an appeal for a settlement of the Russo-Japanese quarrel, and in consequence of this appeal Peace Commissioners from both nations signed the Treaty of Portsmouth, in the United States of America, in 1905.

### Chronology of Russia

B. C.	A. D.
400 Slavonic invasion of Russia.	1019-1054 Jaroslav removes capital to Kiev. Code. Division of estates at death.
5th cent. A. D. Novgorod the Great and Kiev principal towns.	1117 Moscow founded.
9th cent. Tribal groups.	1158 Vladimir founded.
862 The Varangian Rurik called to rule Novgorod.	1169 Bagoliubski takes Kiev.
864-1598 Varangian or Scandinavian dynasty. Estates given to Scandinavians, who form the nobility of the country.	1221 Nijni-Novgorod founded.
865, 907, 941, 944 Varangians vainly besiege Constantinople.	1223 First invasion of Tartars (Mongols) under Genghis-Khan in Southern Russia. Battle of Khalka.
955 Queen Olga embraces Christianity.	1237-1238 Tartars under Batu invade Northern Russia. Moscow burned.
968-967 Her son Sviatoslav hired by Byzantine emperor to war <i>vs.</i> Bulgarians. Slain.	1239-1240 Tartar ravages. All Russia under their yoke save Novgorod.
988-1019 Vladimir, eighth Varangian, marries Greek princess. Makes Christianity national religion. Patron saint of Russia. Conquers Poland. Founds monasteries.	1240 Alexander Nevski defeats Swedes on Neva.
	1242 Batu establishes the Golden Horde of Kiptshak at Seray (mouth of Volga).
	1245 Battle of the Ice. Alexander <i>vs.</i> German Knights.
	1263 Moscow Dynasty.

- A. D.  
 1321 West Russia conquered by Lithuanians.  
 1328-1340 Ivan I recovers Novgorod and Tver from Tartars.  
 1380 Tartars defeated at Kulikovo.  
 1389 Tartar invasion under Tamerlane. First money coined at Novgorod. Famine, plague, earthquake.  
 1407 River Ugra boundary between Moscow and Lithuania.  
 1408 Moscow (save Kremlin) taken by Tartars. Moscow tributary.  
 1462-1505 Ivan III founder of autocracy. His conquests: Jaroslav, Kazan, Perm. Assumes title of Czar and two-headed eagle symbol. Marries Byzantine princess. Annexes Novgorod and Pskov. War *vs.* Tartars. Battle of Oka. Destroys Golden Horde. Transfers big bell to Moscow. Conquers Lithuania. Quarrel with Hansa. Code. Assumes title of Czar, therefore founder of Russian Empire.  
 1504-1533 Basil IV.  
 1508 Revolt of Kazan aided by Tartars. New Invasion. Vasilii tributary.  
 1514 Smolensk recovered from Lithuanians after 110 years. Battle of Orsha.  
 1521 Last independent provinces annexed.  
 1534-1547 Rule of the Glinski favourites.  
 1547-1584 Ivan IV the Terrible. Church book. English land at Archangel, secure trading privileges. Kazan, Astrakhan, etc., annexed. Mongols invade Russia, burn Moscow. Defeats Vasa at Viborg; Strelsi organised. Code.  
 1580 Siberia conquered.
- A. D.  
 1582 War *vs.* Stephen Bathori of Poland. Loss of Livonia.  
 1584-1598 Feodor. Godunov real ruler.  
 1590 War with Sweden.  
 1591 Khan of Crimea raids Russia.  
 1592 Godunov issues Ukase binding peasant to soil.  
 1598-1605 Death of Feodor, last of the Ruriks. Boris.  
 1600-1601 Terrible famine. Plague. Cannibalism.  
 1605-1618 Three rival claimants of throne.  
 1609 Polish invasion.  
 1613-1645 Michael Romanov Czar.  
 1618 Difficulties settled by armistice of fourteen years.  
 1645-1676 Alexis. Revolt at Moscow. New code.  
 1649-1650 Frontier extends to Amur.  
 1654 Ukraine under Russian Protectorate. War with Poland.  
 1655-1656 Great schism in Russian Church.  
 1656 Truce with Poland. War with Sweden.  
 1667 Peace with Poland. Russia recovers much territory, Kiev, Smolensk, etc.  
 1670-1671 Rebellion of Stenka Kazin. He is executed.  
 1676-1682 Feodor III. Book of pedigrees destroyed.  
 1682-1689 Strelzi declare Ivan and Peter Czars. Sophia regent.  
 1689-1725 Peter the Great alone.  
 1696 Peter takes Azov, founds Taganrok.  
 1697-1698 Peter's first journey through Europe.  
 1698 Strelzi revolt. Corps suppressed.  
 1699 Russia, Poland, and Denmark *vs.* Sweden.  
 1700 Northern War. Battle of Narva. Russian calendar changed.  
 1703 Peter founds St. Petersburg.  
 1706-1709 Cossack War. Mazepa. Battle of Pultova.

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- A. D.
- 1710-1711 Turkey *vs.* Russia. Treaty of Pruth.
  - 1714 Russians *vs.* Swedes. Battle of Åland. Peter conquers Finland.
  - 1717 Peter's second European tour.
  - 1719-1721 Russians ravage Sweden. Peace of Ny-stadt. Peter wins Livonia. Esthonia, Ingria, and part of Finland.
  - 1722-1724 War with Persia. Annexations of provinces.
  - 1725-1727 Catherine I, wife of Peter, succeeds him. Menshikov real ruler.
  - 1726-1727 St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences founded.
  - 1727-1730 Peter II.
  - 1730-1740 Anna. Silk and wool manufactures. Ice Palace.
  - 1733-1735 War of Polish Succession.
  - 1735 Persian possessions exchanged for trading privileges.
  - 1735-1739 Russo-Austrian War *vs.* Turkey. Peace of Belgrade.
  - 1740-1741 Ivan VI. Regency troubles.
  - 1741-1762 Elizabeth. Academy of Fine Arts.
  - 1741-1743 War with Sweden. Battles of Vilmånstrand and Helsingfors. Treaty of Åbo.
  - 1755 First Russian University founded at Moscow.
  - 1757-1760 Russia *vs.* Prussia. Battles of Jägerndorf, Zorndorf, Künersdorf. Berlin sacked.
  - 1762 Peter III assassinated.
  - 1762-1796 Catherine II, his wife, succeeds him.
  - 1767-1774 War with Turkey.
  - 1768 Massacre of Jews at Uman.
  - 1770 Battle of Larga. 300,000 Kalmuks leave Russia.
  - 1771 Conquest of Crimea.
  - 1772 Poland divided first time. Russia's gain.
  - 1774 Peace with Sultan, who cedes

- A. D.
- Crimea, etc. Free navigation of Euxine.
  - 1775 Cossack military republic dissolved.
  - 1787-1792 Russo-Austrian War *vs.* Turkey. Peace of Sistova. Treaty of Jassy.
  - 1788-1789 War *vs.* Sweden. Peace of Væla.
  - 1793 Second division of Poland.
  - 1794 Kosciuszko defeated. End of Poland.
  - 1795 Third division of Poland. Accession of Courland, etc.
  - 1796-1801 Paul I. Russia in coalition *vs.* France. Souvarov's retreat over the Alps.
  - 1800 Peace with France.
  - 1801-1825 Alexander. Peace treaties with England, France, Spain. War with Persia, annexes Georgia.
  - 1805 Alexander joins third coalition *vs.* France. Battle of Austerlitz.
  - 1806 Persian conquests. War with Turkey. Alexander in fourth coalition *vs.* France. Battles of Pultusk and Golymin.
  - 1807 Battles of Eylau, Friedland. Niemen interview. Everlasting friendship with Napoleon. Peace of Tilsit.
  - 1808-1809 War *vs.* Sweden. Finland won by Treaty of Fredrikshamn.
  - 1809-1812 War *vs.* Turkey. Battles: Silistria, Balyen, Rustchuk, Giurgevo. Treaty of Bucharest. Pruth boundary.
  - 1812-1813 Napoleon invades Russia. Battles: Smolensk, Moscow (Borodino). Moscow burned. Retreat, Beresina.
  - 1813 Russo-Prussian War *vs.* Napoleon. Battles of Lützen, Bautzen, Dresden, Leipzig. Peace of Gulistan with Persia. Caspian shores annexed.

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| <p>A. D.<br/> 1814-1815 Russo-allies' invasion of France. Congress of Vienna. Wins all Poland except Galicia, Cracow, and Posen.<br/> 1815 Holy Alliance.<br/> 1816-1818 Serfdom abolished in sundry provinces.<br/> 1819 Military colonies in border provinces N. S. &amp; W.<br/> 1825-1855 Nicholas I.<br/> 1826-1828 War <i>vs.</i> Persia. Peace of Turkmanchai.<br/> 1827-1829 War with Turkey. Battle of Navarino. Varna and Adrianople taken.<br/> 1830 New code. Polish insurrection.<br/> 1830-1831 Polish War. Poland incorporated.<br/> 1833 Russian rights of interference in Turkish affairs.<br/> 1839 Expedition <i>vs.</i> Khiva.<br/> 1849 Expedition <i>vs.</i> Hungary.<br/> 1853-1856 Crimean War. Battles: Alma, Balaklava, Inkerman, Tchernaiia. Siege of Sebastopol. Treaty of Paris.<br/> 1855-1881 Alexander II.<br/> 1858 Chinese treaty. Left bank of Amur gained.<br/> 1861 Emancipation of all serfs. Railways.<br/> 1863 Polish insurrection. Knout abolished.<br/> 1864 Pacification of Caucasus.<br/> 1865 Organisation of Province of Turkestan.<br/> 1867 Sale of Alaska or Russian</p> | <p>A. D.<br/> America. Russian official language.<br/> 1868 Samarkand taken.<br/> 1870-1873 Khiva stormed, a vassal state..<br/> 1871 Pontus Conference.<br/> 1874 Compulsory military service.<br/> 1875 Russia cedes Kurile Islands to Japan.<br/> 1877-1878 War <i>vs.</i> Turkey. Shipka Pass, Plevna, Adrianople. Treaties of San Stephano and Berlin.<br/> 1881-1894 Alexander III.<br/> 1884 Three Emperors' League.<br/> 1885 Afghan War. Trans-Caucasian Railway begun.<br/> 1887 Russo-Afghan frontier settled.<br/> 1891 Famines. Siberian Railway begun.<br/> 1894- Nicholas II.<br/> 1895 Treaty of Shimonoseki with Japan gives Russia right to run railway across Chinese territory to Vladivostok, and control of North Manchuria.<br/> 1896 Imperial tour of European courts.<br/> 1897 President Faure's visit to Russia. "Alliance."<br/> 1898 Russia obtains permission to build Manchurian Railway.<br/> 1899 Boxer troubles. China <i>vs.</i> Russia. Massacre. Peace Conference at Hague.<br/> 1904 Outbreak of Russo-Japanese War.<br/> 1905 Peace at Portsmouth, U. S. A.</p> |
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## XXVIII

### TRAVEL IN RUSSIA

If you enter Russia from Germany, the first river you strike is the Niemen, famous for the raft interview between Napoleon I and the Czar Alexander. The two principal towns on this stream are Kovno, an ancient town of Lithuania, where there are some interesting old churches, and Grodno, farther up stream, for a brief time the capital of Stephan Batori, whose castle is now a mass of picturesque ruins. Railway lines run from Kovno to the ports of Libau, Riga, Reval, and St. Petersburg, or inland to the junction of Wilna, where in pagan times a perpetual fire was kept burning at the foot of the eminence now crowned by the ruins of an old castle.

The capital of Lithuania, Wilna, has long been an important town, and it is interesting, also, because it was occupied by Napoleon's army when he invaded Russia. An almost straight line of railway runs from Wilna to Dina-burg, a great trading-centre, also noted for its important fortress. From that point, still straight across a fertile but rather uninteresting country, the railroad continues to Psof, one of the oldest places in Russia, a member of the famous Hanseatic League, and known for its patriotism and love of liberty as well as for its Kremlin and for its Cathedral. All this region is well wooded, and the flax fields, when in bloom, offer a beautiful aspect to those unfamiliar with the dainty blue flower. Strangers may find it interesting to see how the thread is extracted from the stalk,—very primitive methods being still used in many parts of the country for this process,—and how it is dried, spun, and woven into linen, more or less coarse according to the quality of the flax and the dexterity of those who handle it.



Before reaching St. Petersburg, via this route, you pass Gatshine, a seldom used imperial dwelling, where dog-lovers will find fascinating kennels, while anglers will prefer the trout, and antiquarians the relics of the Knights of Malta. To be seen in its glory, St. Petersburg should be visited in winter, when its social attractions, court functions, and other amusements of all kinds make it a very gay city. With proper precautions and clothing, the cold will be found quite endurable, for the government keeps fires burning in the streets whenever the temperature drops below a certain level, so that passers-by can warm their hands and feet. The promenade along the Nevski, with sleighs passing constantly to and fro, is then one of the brilliant sights of the capital, and the stranger will enjoy the display of costumes, furs, fine horses, and gay trappings on bright days. The massive buildings, the numerous bridges, the churches whose services and decorations all seem strange to those accustomed only to the Western modes of worship, the bazaars, and theatres, all prove most attractive to tourists.

After viewing St. Isaac's Cathedral, and attending, if possible, some great service, strangers will doubtless visit the Kazan Cathedral; the Winter Palace with its historical pictures and crown jewels display; the Hermitage, or art-gallery, where many masterpieces of painting and sculpture are collected, and where coins, gems, and other curios delight those who know enough about them to understand what they see. After devoting as much time as they can spare to the treasures of the Hermitage, the fortress and cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul, the college of Peter the Great, and the ship which he built with his own hands, will receive some attention, ere a visit is paid to the Academy of Sciences, where new collections await us, as well as in the University, the Academy of Arts, and the Imperial Library.

Some people like to inspect the various charitable institutions, such as the foundling asylums, and hospitals; and all are curious about the monasteries, which are so frequent in Russia. There are, besides, several other

palaces, a few private collections, the Arsenal, and the Museum of Imperial Carriages, which claim some attention, and one can also visit the Summer Garden, and make excursions to Cronstadt, — the navy yard and state prison of St. Petersburg, — to Oranienburg, Peterhof, Mikailofsky, Strelna, Sergi, and Krasnoe Selo, the country residences of various members of the imperial family, for archdukes and archduchesses are very numerous in Russia.

In summer, excursions are made to Lake Ladoga, to the Imperial Porcelain Manufactory, to the fortress of Schlüsselsburg, and the ancient monastery at Valaam, situated on a picturesque island, where, by the way, a curious annual fair is always held in June.

From St. Petersburg a railway line penetrates into Finland, branching off so as to reach all the principal inland centres as well as the largest ports along the indented coast, — ports at which various steam and sailing vessels stop all through the summer season. In winter, when thick ice covers the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, one can drive along well-travelled routes running between Helsingfors and Revel, and also across the Gulf of Bothnia to Sweden.

As in Sweden and Norway, much of the travelling in Finland is done in carriages, which race at breakneck speed down every declivity, however steep; or one can recline on a feather bed in a kибитка, where, however, ease does not attend you, owing to the total absence of springs in the composition of this vehicle. These carriages, and the Russian telega — another bone-racking concern — are the usual modes of conveyance, and post-horses are in readiness all along the main travelled roads.

Owing to the fact that few tourists visit this region, travel is comparatively cheap, and accommodations are in many cases quite primitive. Besides the striking approach by sea to Helsingfors, — where the harbour is guarded by the fortress of Sveaborg, — there is little to interest the ordinary tourist in this thrifty modern port,

and the exploration of the rocky coast, with its granite caves, its fir trees, short fjords, and multitudinous islands, therefore seems doubly attractive. Picturesque fishing-villages are found all along the Gulf of Bothnia, and fishing and hunting, with a chance to spend the summer months in a northern climate are the main features of interest. If you go far enough north, railways cease entirely and the usual modes of locomotion are supplanted by swift-footed reindeer. In the winter season a sled journey over the hard crust of the snow proves a novel and delightful experience.

Another northern point, seldom visited save by those whom business calls there, is Archangel, on the White Sea. On an island in this bay stands one of the holiest places in Russia, the Solovetsk Monastery, whose granite walls, subterranean passages, cells where sundry famous men spent their time of banishment, and traces of the sieges which the holy edifice has sustained, are objects of great interest. There are no less than six churches within the enclosures of this fortress-monastery, and the sacristy contains wonderful treasures in the way of jewelled reliquaries, beautiful vestments, rare manuscripts, and fine armour. From this monastery it is easy to pay a visit to the fishing, trading, and lumber villages and stations of the region, or in the right season to take a sea trip from Archangel to Nova Zembla or even around the North Cape.

From St. Petersburg, it is but a short distance to Novgorod the Great, which has existed since the middle of the ninth century, and whose ancient cathedral St. Sophia was restored during the nineteenth century. It contains many interesting relics, as do the numerous monasteries of this place, which are well worth visiting, as well as the Kremlin, and the monument commemorating the thousandth year of the city's existence.

A story runs that when the Czar was asked to settle which route the railway between St. Petersburg and Moscow ought to follow, he placed his ruler on the map, drew a straight line from one point to the other, and

## 2. HOW TO PREPARE FOR EUROPE

"The first object in the park was Looking to  
 the right, it almost seems as if the valley did try to  
 "the shortest way" from one point to another."  
 "The interesting part along the straight road is  
 where the valley is almost straight, and from  
 there, looking a distance of about twenty, and  
 it is possible to see the water and to Jonathan  
 in the distance, as at St. Petersburg. The Cath  
 at the end of the road, with some ch  
 and the water, and the "straight" are  
 in the distance. Now, however, a  
 "The water, which was interesting, occurred,  
 which was at the same time combined at  
 the

11. Various Young Men are sent to spend the winter in their time at leisure — a city which has considerable attractions such as within the Kremlin, the Tower, the Park, the Palace and where convenient to stay with the family with its frequent apartments, the picture gallery and theatre, the cathedral church, the various museums and monuments, and the gardens where all manner of amusements can be had, and it is very pleasant for where the ordinary tour is not so far from home as from them they are well.

[illegible]

... on the 1st of July ...  
... the 1st of July ...  
... the 1st of July ...



Banquet Hall, the Kremlin, Moscow  
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bade the engineers lay the track thus. Looking at the map, it almost seems as if the railway did try to follow "the shortest road from one point to another." The most interesting place along this straight road is Tver, where the Volga is already navigable, and from which point, taking advantage of lakes, streams, and canals, it is possible to go by water only to Astrakhan about 2,150 miles away, or to St. Petersburg. The Cathedral of Tver with its three-storied belfry with secret chambers, and the historic monastery of Uspenski, are famous. So is the Krakova Monastery (New Jerusalem), a miniature Holy Land, where many interesting events occurred, and where relics of great sanctity are exhibited at certain times.

All tourists visiting Russia are sure to spend the main part of their time at Moscow, — a city which has countless attractions, some of which are the Kremlin, the Tower of Ivan the Great, the colossal bell whose circumference is sixty feet, the palace with its gorgeous apartments, the picture galleries and treasury, the wonderful churches, the various monasteries and nunneries, and the great bazaar, where all manner of curiosities can be bought cheap by expert shoppers, but where the ordinary tourist is likely to pay much more for them than they are worth.

After visiting schools, hospitals, and asylums, and viewing the curiosities in the museums and at the university, the great riding-school may offer considerable entertainment, or else you may like to drive out to the famous suburban religious houses for both sexes, to the empress's villa, and the cemeteries not only of the orthodox but also of the dissenting sects. It is also possible from Moscow to visit by rail the Monastery of Troitsa, a place of pilgrimage since 1342, whose ten churches, tall belfry, and priceless relics every one is anxious to inspect as closely as possible.

From Moscow to Nijni-Novgorod we have a twelve-hour railway journey, and during the fair months (July to September) trains are often overcrowded. This city



Banquet Hall, the Kremlin, Moscow  
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Nijni-Novgorod, Russia  
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is also quite ancient, having probably been founded by Vladimir in the twelfth century. Several of its churches belong to that epoch, as do the Kremlin and the "Golden Gate." From Minin's Tower you can obtain an extensive panorama of the town itself, of the thickly masted Volga spanned by a bridge of boats, and of the motley population, attracted there by the mammoth fair, the greatest mart of Eastern Europe.

Another extended and delightful view is to be had from Otkos, a terrace built by order of the Czar Nicholas; and certainly much time can be profitably spent studying the merchants of the fair, whose primitive methods of barter and exchange are rapidly making way for more modern commercial processes.

Another fair, held in January on the ice, attracts fewer customers and tradesmen, and no tourists, for the season is then far from clement. From Nijni-Novgorod, where it is said the finest turquoises can be procured at remarkably low prices, one can sail along the Oka (a tributary of the Volga) and its branches for many miles, visiting any towns (Vladimir, for instance), monasteries, iron works, and villages that strike your fancy.

Another journey up the Volga to Yaroslaf, or down the same stream almost to Kazan, — once the capital of the Tartar kingdom, — is also most enjoyable.

Owing to repeated conflagrations, natural in a country where fires have to be maintained night and day for many months in the year, and where even now the majority of the houses are built of wood, many of the old Russian landmarks have disappeared. Still, the cathedral and pyramidal tower are very old, and the miraculous image, "Our Lady of Kazan," has withstood all flames. This image, like many of the sacred pictures, or icons, in Russia, is supposed to have miraculous powers, and the superstitious Russians regard it with great veneration.

From Kazan, one of the great Russian highways runs slightly northward across the Ural Mountains and passes into Siberia, while a much travelled water-route along

the Kama rejoins the railways at Perm. Along this stream seventeen hundred vessels navigate every year, and there are besides any number of curious rafts, which are one of the peculiar features of river traffic in this section. Sailing lazily all the way down the Volga, to Astrakhan at its mouth, you have ample opportunity to study your fellow-travellers, the majority of whom belong to the ill-smelling, unwashed race of Russian Jews. Owing to the amount of passage up and down the Volga, the need of some aid to tow vessels up-stream was soon felt. A cable was therefore laid along the bed of the stream, by means of which vessels can pull themselves up against the strong current, and thus they ply to and fro with far greater speed and ease.

The Volga divides into many mouths at Astrakhan, the chief centre for the pelt of that name (or Persian lamb), which comes from the still-born lambs of the huge flocks pasturing on the grassy plains of Southern Russia.

From Astrakhan you can go by steamer to Baku, also on the Caspian, and from there journey through the picturesque Trans-Caucasian region to Tiflis, the capital of Georgian monarchs, — a place famous for its climate, its wines, the beauty of its women, and the great variety of costumes worn by the natives. This is a good starting-point if you wish to visit Erwan, to enjoy a glorious view of Mt. Ararat, or inspect the churches and monasteries in the neighbourhood. From Tiflis also you can explore the Caucasus region, and crossing this great ridge visit Daghestan, noted principally for the rugs which the industrious inhabitants still manufacture on hand-loom.

On the northern slope of the Caucasus also we find Circassia, whence the handsomest slaves were always brought to stock the Turkish harems. All this region is now crossed diagonally by a railway running from the Caspian Sea to Rostof, at the mouth of the Don, which, by the way, connects with the direct line from Tzaritzin on the Volga, to Ekaterinodar between the Caucasus, the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azov.

An exploration of the Sea of Azov, of the Crimean Peninsula, of the shores of the Black Sea, with excursions up the Don and Dnieper, will show you much of Southern Russia, where the main centre is Odessa, on the Black Sea. This city has long been a great trading-port, and boasts a fine cathedral and fortress, numerous public institutions, and excellent sea and mineral baths. The country around there is, however, quite unattractive, and in going from Odessa to Ekaterinoslaf you strike across some of the desolate steppes, where the barren soil produces only wiry grass and stunted trees and shrubs.

You can also reach this city by sailing up the Dnieper, whose course can be followed still farther until you reach Kiev, the "Jerusalem of Russia," and one of the most ancient towns in this part of Europe. Its antiquity, the fact that it has been the capital and is still one of the sacred cities of Russia, added to its picturesque situation and its pagan associations, with the antique mosaics in its cathedral, and the carved tomb of Yaroslaf, render it of paramount interest to students and sight-seers. As it is a sacred city, with a monastery said to have been founded by St. Anthony and St. Theodosius, it is visited by hosts of pilgrims (50,000 or more per year), who come from all parts of the country, and even from Kamchatka, often begging their way from point to point of this interminable journey.

Kiev is connected by railway with all the principal Russian cities, many of which share its eventful history, while others figure also in the annals of foreign nations. Such is Smolensk, — nearly as old as Kiev, — long a bone of contention between Poles, Tartars, and Russians, and the place where Napoleon paused twice during his disastrous Russian campaign. It is here, also, that Ney blew up part of the fortifications ere starting out to cover the famous Retreat, wherein he won the surname of Brave des Braves for his devotion to his men. The huge mounds which mark the graves of these invaders, the ancient fortifications, and cathedral will occupy agreeably as much time as the average tourist can spare,

before passing on to places of greater interest and perchance making a brief visit to Warsaw.

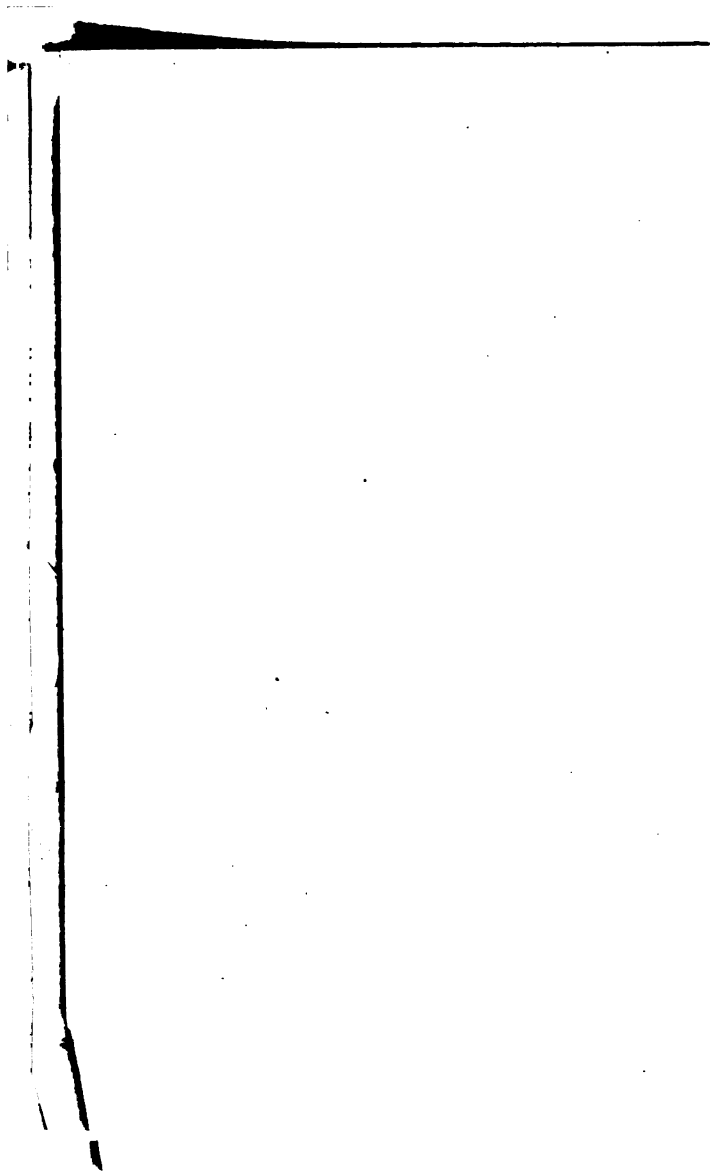
As Warsaw was the capital of the brave little Polish kingdom, its historical reminiscences are numerous for those who like to ferret them out. From the cupola of the Lutheran church you obtain a fine bird's-eye view of the city, through which flows the bridge-spanned Vistula, and from there, also, you can locate the principal points to visit, such as the Royal Castle and Square, the Citadel, the Field of Mars, sundry palaces and churches, the cemeteries, — the pleasure resorts of the people, — the statue of St. John of Nepomuck, — the saint who died rather than reveal a secret confided to him, — and the Castle which now belongs to Count Potocki, but which was once the property of Sobieski. Excursions can also be made to the surrounding country, where there are many beautiful drives and fine estates. Those who take an interest in Poland's struggles may also like to visit the battlefields in the neighbourhood, indicated as usual on guide-book and other maps by ominous crossed swords.

From Warsaw, as a central point, railways branch out in every direction, so that it is quite easy to reach German or Austrian Poland from there, or to return to Russia, for further inspection of this fascinating country, where the prevailing characteristic seems to be a gross superstition, which reveals itself in countless unexpected ways. For instance, a traveller describes a recent review at St. Petersburg as follows :

"This Paulovski regiment did one thing which amused me. Just before the cortège came up they all blew their noses with their fingers, at the word of command, and this was done in order that none might sneeze when the Emperor passed, as their doing so would bring him bad luck."

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## XXIX

### ASIA MINOR: HISTORY AND TRAVEL

OWING to the sparsity of railways, travel in Asia Minor is difficult, fatiguing, and costly, yet every year sees some improvement in extant conditions and a consequent increase in the number of strangers who visit it. The goal of the greater part of these tourists is the Holy Land, or Palestine, with Jerusalem in particular, which can be reached overland from Egypt, or from Joppa by the only railway line which the country boasts. Comparatively few visit the Holy City on their way from Constantinople to Egypt.

Before undertaking any trip, however short, in this section of the world, it is well to inform one's self by means of a reliable guide book concerning all the formalities and precautions to be observed, and to ascertain all you can about climate, customs, modes of travel, routes, and cost. Antiquarians, historians, and artists will undoubtedly find plenty to rivet their attention; scientists in every branch are sure not to lack interesting material; seekers after novelty will be richly rewarded, and sportsmen of every kind will find abundant game in certain regions and at stated seasons.

The history — or rather histories, for they are legion — of this section has been touched upon elsewhere, and the reader knows that there are interesting art remains at almost every point. Familiarity with nations and events adds to one's enjoyment of the journey in proportion to its extent and thoroughness. Besides, some knowledge of Turkish customs, beliefs, and language is also useful, for all this section is under the rule of Moslems. The different tribes and nationalities you meet give an indescribable charm and variety to this

journey, often enabling you to overlook the trials and hardships, and making you forget dust, dirt, smells, vermin, etc., the usual drawbacks to travel in southern and eastern countries.

Those who start from Constantinople can visit Scutari, Sinope, Trebizond, and Batum by sea, going thence by rail across the neck of land between the Black and Caspian seas, thus visiting Tiflis and Baku, points from which an exploration of the Caspian, or a journey to Persia, is quite feasible.

Many excursions can be planned from Scutari as a starting-point. You can take one of the coasting-vessels, so as to explore the shores of the Sea of Marmora, landing as frequently as you please to ride or drive along roads which have existed for thousands of years, visiting such places as Nicæa, and Brusa, the old capital of the Turks under Ertözhrul. We are told that Othman, son of this hero, had a wonderful vision wherein he saw a moon rise from a sleeping companion's breast and nestle in his. Then he beheld a tree spring forth from the spot where the moon had rested, and this tree grew and spread until the Caucasus, Atlas, Taurus, and Hæmus mountains sheltered under its branches, beneath which flowed the Nile, Danube, Tigris, and Euphrates. Next the wind arose and shook the great branches, allowing him a glimpse of the many cities they overshadowed, one of which bore the cross of Constantine, which was shattered and replaced by a glittering crescent, ere the vision vanished and he awoke.

When Othman told his vision to his companion, the latter, convinced that it was a token from heaven, bestowed upon him the hand of his only daughter, the "Moon Maiden." The son of this couple was an ancestor of the present Sultan, and the vision came true, inasmuch as the Turkish Empire did extend at one time over a vast space of territory, and the crescent still glitters where the cross once shone.

After devoting all the time you please to Brusa and its memories, you can proceed to Pteria, a town of the

time of Croesus, the remains of whose great walls, citadel, and palace are fascinating, as are also the carved limestone rocks and galleries of Yasili Kaya and the Sphinxes of Euyuk.

By railway, running far into Anatolia, you reach Angora, its centre, both politically and commercially, where ancient remains, fine scenery, delicious fruit and honey, and beautiful cats are the special attractions for foreigners.

Some travellers continue the coast journey from Scutari until they sail through the Dardanelles and into the *Ægean* Sea, where they soon behold the rocky heights of Tenedos, reminding them how the Greek ships lay hidden there when the Trojans believed them gone forever. Of course, most tourists land to view the site of Troy (Hissarlik), examining such traces of its magnificence as modern excavations have brought to light, before they go on to Smyrna, the greatest seaport of Anatolia, whence immense quantities of oriental products of every description are shipped to all parts of the world, including the raisins and dried figs with which all are familiar.

A city founded 1100 B.C., with historical memories galore, is surely an interesting study, and the remains of the largest theatre on the coast, of the stadium and Caravan bridge, as well as the view from Mt. Pagus, are well worth seeing.

From Smyrna, if fancy prompts, you can undertake a special pilgrimage to all the places where important remains of Phrygian art are to be found, — a tour fascinating in the extreme for enthusiasts on that subject, the most famous of all these treasures being the "Tomb of Midas," a rock fifty-four feet high, covered with ornaments and inscriptions. Two short but branching railway lines facilitate excursions into the interior in the north and east and south, taking you to the Sesostris Monuments, and to the Hermus Valley, where you can behold the famous Niobe rock, or huge cliff statue, into which, according to legend, this mourning mother was transformed by the pitying gods.

From this point, examining all the interesting ruins you pass, you will reach Sardis, already an old and famous city when Gyges murdered King Candaules at the instigation of the queen, and recalling besides memories of Croesus, of the Persians, and of the "Seven Churches of Asia," the ravages of the Goths and Turks, the latter having ruined it in 1402. The remains which still crown the hill are picturesque in the extreme, for the Columns are not the only points of interest visible to all. When scientific excavations come to be carried on here, it is probable that new treasures will enrich the antiquarian world. By the other railway branch the principal point of interest you reach is the ancient Pergamum, existing already in the days of the Heraclidæ, connected with the history of Alexander and Attalus, and famous for the library of 200,000 volumes which Antony bestowed upon Cleopatra. This town flourished under the Romans, and the ruins of its Acropolis, Gymnasium, Agora, and temples, dating from Greek and Roman times, are fascinating to all lovers of such things.

No less interesting than Pergamum and Sardis is Ephesus, equally accessible from Smyrna, and fraught with memories of pagan and early Christian times. Every traveller gazes with awe at the ruins of Diana's famous temple, burned by a crank on Alexander's natal day, but rebuilt with even greater magnificence, so that it was at the height of its glory when the Apostles came there to convert the Ephesians. Remains of this temple, of ancient gateways, Roman aqueduct, theatres, monuments, towers, tombs, etc. of every description abound, and will amply repay any amount of study you can devote to their investigation.

From Ephesus to Miletus, whence excursions can be made to the lovely island of Samos, to Patmos, where John had his visions, or to "the seven churches of Asia." In fact, every step in this region reveals some relic of the past, some picturesque village, or some fine view; and when you come lower down the coast to Halicarnassus, where the celebrated Mausoleum once stood, you

can still behold some remains of this "Seventh Wonder of the World" (the statues are now in the British Museum), out of whose stones the Knights of Rhodes erected the picturesque Castle of St. Peter in 1404.

An excursion to the island of Rhodes, so bravely defended by knights of this order against repeated attacks of the Turks, reminds us that at the entrance of its port once stood the famous Colossus, another of the world's seven marvels. Besides, the delightful climate of this island proves enticing, and a journey around it on muleback will give you a fair idea of the region as well as of the natives, who are a fine, strong, handsome race notwithstanding their unnaturally early marriages.

From Rhodes you can easily sail to Crete (or Candia), where the remains of Minos' so-called "Labyrinth" or Palace have been recently discovered, or to Cyprus, one of Britain's Mediterranean possessions.

The winding road from Miletus along the coast to Tarsus, or the one farther inland running through the mountains from the railway terminus at Dineir to the same point, are interesting, if fatiguing. The latter route, however, has the advantage of taking you to Eregli, whence you can make an excursion to the Hittite Sculptures at Ivriz and behold the most beautiful gorge in Asia Minor. From Tarsus, with its classical memories of the Seven Sleepers and Biblical reminders of Saul, you can proceed by ship from Messina to Alexandretta, a port situated at the spot where the coast of Asia Minor curves abruptly toward the south. Still, in case you prefer travelling by land, you can reach Alexandretta by passing through the Cilician, or the Syrian Gates, picturesque mountain passes of considerable fame. A land journey will, besides, enable you to behold Jonah's Pillar and the place where Alexander fought the decisive battle of Issus.

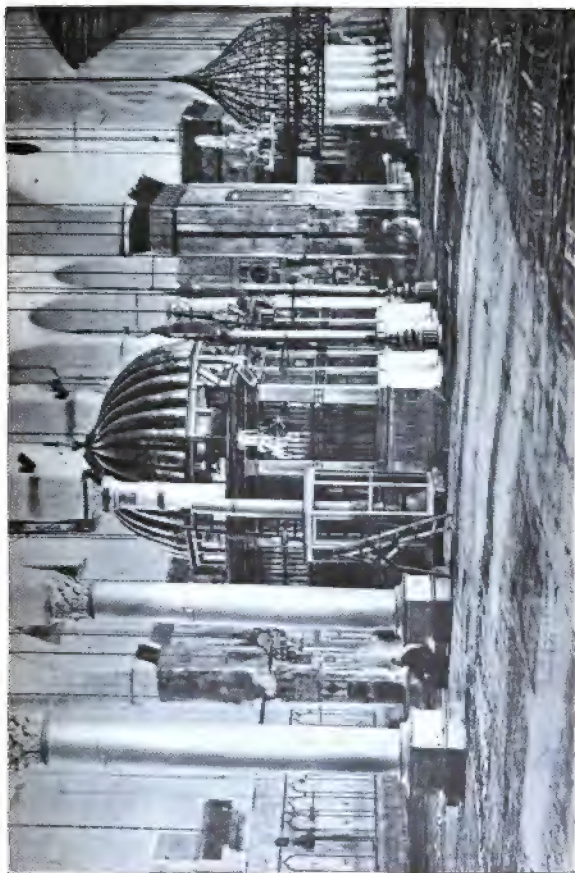
Well-travelled roads lead from Alexandretta to Antioch and Aleppo, and thence across the desert and along the Euphrates to its junction with the Tigris, thus permitting you to explore all the region once occupied by

the Chaldean, Assyrian, Babylonian, and ancient Persian empires. A visit to the sites of Babylon, Nineveh, and Persepolis, to the Tower of Babel, and a sojourn in Bagdad, once the capital of a great caliphate and now the centre for all caravan routes and for the trade between the Caspian and Black seas, and the Persian Gulf, will supply delightful occupation for months for hardy and venturesome travellers.

By following the Euphrates and Tigris up to their sources one can explore the mountainous region of the Taurus, visit the three great lakes located in Armenia and Georgia, and if fancy prompts, even follow the route trodden by Xenophon and the ten thousand Greeks, or make an ascension of lofty Mt. Ararat. A study of the local monasteries of the country, of its products and inhabitants, will also prove interesting, and will throw light upon many events in ancient and modern history.

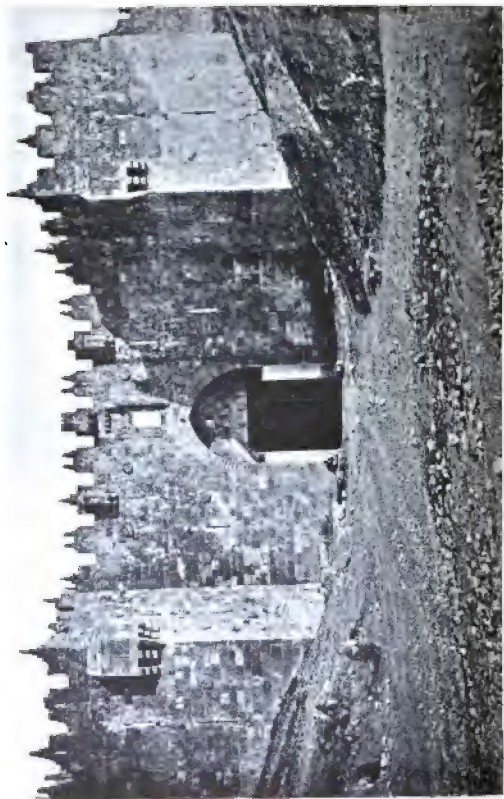
From Antioch, whose connection with the Crusades is particularly interesting, you can go via Aleppo to the ancient Palmyra, or Tadmor, as it is now called, and thence to Damascus, capital of Syria. Damascus itself is a fascinating Eastern town, from which you can visit the wonderful remains of the Temple of the Sun at Baalbec, ere following the usual caravan route over the Lebanon Mountains, whence the cedar for the construction of the Temple of Jerusalem was obtained. This road leads straight down to the Mediterranean coast, where Tyre and Sidon were located and where Acre, the city besieged by Richard the Lion-Hearted, still stands.

From Damascus also there is a great caravan route through the uninhabited desert region to the oases in the heart of Arabia, while another runs directly south to Medina and Mecca, the sacred city of the Mussulmans, toward which 180,000,000 "true believers," turn their faces in prayer five times a day, when the Muezzin's call rings down from the tall minarets, or across the sandy waste: "God is great — There is but one God —



Tomb of John the Baptist, Great Mosque, Damascus

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Damascus Gate, Jerusalem  
p. 375



Mohammed is the prophet of God — prayer is better than sleep — come to prayer ! ”

If you prefer a sea journey or even the coast road, you can go from Alexandretta to Latakia, Tripoli, Beirut, Acre, and Jaffa, and thence explore the Holy Land including the Jordan and Dead Sea. All this region is so familiar to Bible readers that further mention of it is unnecessary ; yet travellers cannot be urged too much to study the religion, customs, and people as closely as possible, for by doing so we gain an insight into the meaning of obscure passages of the Scripture, some of which are explained by the customs of the land, as is the case in Christ's saying : “ It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God.” Jerusalem, as every one knows, has always been surrounded by walls and gates, and some remains of even its most ancient fortifications can still be seen. Cities always closed their great gates at sundown, leaving only small wickets open through which belated travellers could be admitted into the city. In many oriental towns such narrow openings went by the picturesque name of “ the needle's eye,” the great door being known as “ the needle.” Now, it sometimes happened that a rich man would come along riding on a richly caparisoned camel. Finding the great gates closed, he would strip his mount of all its trappings so as to bear those at least into the city out of harm's way. Then, hoping to save his mount also from the clutches of the thieves, who prowled around the walls at night, he would strive by coaxing to induce the camel to crowd through the narrow opening. As camels are often surly and obstinate, particularly when deprived of their trappings, of which some are inordinately proud, this operation was so difficult that our Saviour used this familiar incident to point a moral.

The throng of pilgrims who frequent the scene of our Saviour's life and death detracts greatly from the solemnity of such a visit, so as far as possible it is advisable to go to the Holy Places at seasons and hours when the

crowd is likely to be otherwise engaged. Otherwise, the remembrance of the fanatical horde is the most vivid impression one is likely to carry away from the Promised Land.

### Chronology of Asia Minor


B.C.	A.D.
Early kingdoms of Asia Minor: Phrygia, Mysia, Lydia, Caria, Lycia, Bithynia, Pontus (Cappadocia), Paphlagonia, Troja (South), Syria, (Phoenicia), Israel, Judah, Arabia.	622 Hegira or Flight of Mohammed.
c. 1043 First Ionian colonies.	874 Basil wins back part.
724 Croesus King of Lydia supreme.	1097-1149 Wars of Crusaders.
711 Conquered by Medes.	1099 Crusaders take Jerusalem.
546 Conquered by Persians.	1099-1187 Frank Kingdom of Jerusalem.
544-323 Struggle between Greece and Persia.	1187 Saladin retakes Jerusalem.
332 Alexander invades Asia. Granicus, Issus, Arbela.	1192 Siege of Acre. Richard Cœur-de-Lion.
323-278 Separate kingdoms of Alexander's successors. Feuds.	1204-1261 Empires of Nicæa and Trebizond.
188-15 A.D. Romans conquer Asia Minor.	1229 Frederick II re-enters Jerusalem.
169 Persians recover Asia Minor.	1239 Retaken by Sultan of Damascus.
	1244 Final overthrow of Christians.
	1402 Timur or Tamerlane invades Asia Minor.
	1413 Turkish Empire in Asia Minor.
	1453 Turkish Empire in Europe and Asia.

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**Tangiers, Morocco**  
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Church of Notre Dame, Algiers  
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## XXX

### NORTH AFRICA: HISTORY AND TRAVEL

**MANY** European tourists prefer the southern route across the ocean which brings them within sight of the Azores, and not very far from the group of Madeira Islands. The first sight of land after several days of nothing but sky and water is always delightful ; besides, there is often the additional excitement of seeing a cask thrown over-board, which contains letters or postals addressed by the passengers to their friends. This cask is duly marked, and the island fishermen know so well that they will receive a reward from the company's agent if they find it and mail its contents, that they always look out for it when a vessel is in sight. Letters forwarded in this way are, of course, not at all certain to reach their destination ; at best they are often delayed. Still, they generally reach America within four or six weeks from the time when they were tossed into the sea.

As transatlantic steamers make no stop short of Gibraltar, tourists who wish to visit these islands are obliged to go there by local steamers, some of which sail quite frequently from Lisbon and Cadiz. These vessels generally run directly to Funchal, — the largest port in Madeira, — whence another line conveys passengers to the Azores, which, by the way, form part of Portugal's possessions. Composed of nine islands and many reefs, these volcanic islands enjoy a very mild climate, and are thus fitted for a winter resort for invalids. There are, however, few attractions aside from the hot springs, the sea-bathing, and the beauties of nature, which are particularly enjoyable during the winter months. Both the Azores and Madeira are

therefore visited chiefly for the sake of their warmth and sunshine, and also because it is possible to be comfortable there at moderate cost.

The soil is so fertile and the humidity so great that the verdure is luxuriant, and fruits and flowers of every cultivated kind are very abundant. The natives raise oranges, pineapples, corn, etc., which they ship in great quantities from their chief port, Angra, the capital of the archipelago.

Although these islands must have been visited by the Phoenicians, they were rediscovered for Portugal by Vabral, who found them quite uninhabited in the middle of the fifteenth century. Indeed, it was only when the king had bestowed them upon his aunt that they were colonized by emigrants from Flanders.

Tourists landing at Gibraltar get their first glimpse of Africa as they draw near the strait, and are likely to land first at Tangiers ("the city protected by the Lord"), whose white houses are discernible from the Spanish shore.

Artists flock here in quest of local colour and picturesque costumes, Arabs and Moors being both fond of bright draperies and gay turbans. Tangiers is the principal port of a country which the natives consider the finest spot on earth, for an old Arabic proverb says, "The world is a peacock, and Morocco is the tail of it!" Besides, there is a legend which enlightened Moors (they are few enough) are prone to dwell upon. It runs as follows: "When God was making the world, He paused and called the nations to Him and said: 'Here I have made the earth, and I have made you. Now, you may each of you ask for whatever you want in your countries, and I will give it you.' Then the nations asked for the things they most wished to have, and whatever they asked for they received. When it was over, they began discussing amongst themselves the value of their requests. One had asked for a beautiful climate, another for a handsome people and a rich soil, a third for mineral wealth, a fourth for rich

vegetation and beautiful scenery. 'I,' said the Moor, 'asked for all, and I have got all.' But the Englishman said, 'I asked for only one thing, and the rest will come. I asked for a good government!' 'Ah,' said the others, 'we forgot that!'"

North Africa has been, indeed, prey to much misgovernment, and has changed hands very often since the earliest records which we possess. When we first hear of the stretch now known as Morocco — land of the Moors — it belongs to the Phœnicians. After the fall of Carthage and the end of Phœnician sway in Africa, it was conquered and held by the Romans, who in their turn were despoiled by Vandal invaders. The Vandals did not long remain in undisputed possession, as the Arabs came from the East to seize all North Africa (698), crossing over into Spain in 711.

After the Moors had been driven out of the Iberian Peninsula and back to Africa, the Portuguese conquered Tangiers, which for a brief time was also under English government. Even within the last century the city has been bombarded, for it was one of the strongholds of the Mediterranean pirates, against whom all Christian nations made war.

The present rulers of Morocco claim direct descent from Ali, Mohammed's son-in-law, and are only nominally subject to the Sultan of Turkey, to whom they pay tribute. For a long time the national policy consisted in keeping strangers out of the country, but of late years the inhabitants of Tangiers have discovered in the tourist a mine of wealth, and are exploiting him to the best of their ability. Still, even now, it is not safe for foreigners to travel in remote parts of the country, or to venture at night in some of the alleys of Tangiers.

The whole country is considered remarkably free from malaria, — the scourge of Africa, — and it is certainly very fertile wherever sufficient water can be obtained. In the mountains there are still some well-wooded valleys, although the country, as a rule, is bare

of large trees, and fruit and nut trees have to be carefully cultivated.

Sportsmen find bears, hyenas, wild hogs, and birds in abundance ; so a few of them have explored the country from end to end, visiting Fez and Morocco (which are on the usual route of travel), and even the sacred oasis of Tafilet. A journey all along the coast of Morocco is not without interest for those who enjoy unhackneyed places, and excursions into the mountains are even more delightful. From Tangiers or Tetuan, by sea to Oran, in Algeria, is a short journey, yet it brings you within reach of a railway, — a rarity in Africa, although since Algeria has belonged to France many improvements have been introduced there.

The previous history of Algeria is in many respects similar to that of Morocco, for there, too, we find traces of Phœnician, Roman, Vandal, and Saracen occupation. Some of the finest Roman ruins in the world are to be seen in North Africa, where as communication grows easier travel increases ; in fact railways already penetrate far inland, where the lofty range of the Atlas Mountains offers beautiful scenery and excellent hunting. By one railway branch from Oran you come within easy reach of Tlemcen, by another to the large lakes in the mountain region, while a third follows the coast line, although somewhat inland, and thus connects Oran with Algiers, Constantine, Bona, and Tunis.

Since Algeria has become a French colony, great progress has been made both in agriculture and government, and much European capital is invested in the country, where commerce is more flourishing than ever before, and where the genial climate attracts a greater number of strangers every year. Most of these seek lodgings in the neighbourhood of Algiers, so as to enjoy the beautiful scenery, and especially the view of the blue Mediterranean.

Since 1881 Tunis, also, has been under French protectorate. It is a city of great interest to the archæologist, for it is located near the site of ancient Carthage,

and the country all around there is full of historical reminiscences. Few strangers, however, venture beyond Tunis, where there are many beautiful mosques, fascinating bazaars, a motley population, a national museum, and a Mohammedan university of considerable renown.

Tripoli is but a step, as it were, from Sicily, with which island it stands in constant communication, as well as with Alexandria, and indeed with all the principal ports of the "Inland Ocean." Like Morocco, Tripoli is still subject to the Ottoman Empire; so its Bey pays tribute to the Sultan, whose authority there is, however, purely nominal. The principal centre, Tripoli itself, is reached most easily by sea, and few travellers venture beyond it, because there are as yet no railways, although the country is bisected by caravan routes, one of which crosses the Sahara Desert and runs southward to the head of Lake Chad. By means of these caravans the choice products of Central Africa find their way to the coast, where Tripoli is one of the greatest marts for exportation.

- To Americans the harbour of Tripoli will forever be associated with the American navy and Stephen Decatur, and few travellers of our nation fail to recall his gallant exploit — of which the United States of America are so justly proud — when they come within sight of that shore.

By a caravan route following every bend of the coast line, Tripoli communicates with Bengazi, the principal seaport in the neighbouring province of Barca, once the Greek Cyrenaica, but now a Turkish province also. The trade of this port comes through the Libyan Desert, great caravans passing through the group of oases near its centre, where men and camels find the refreshment they so sorely need, and renew their stock of water and provisions ere resuming their weary way. Many sponges are also exported from Bengazi, the sponge fisheries along the coast being particularly fine and interesting. The only mode of intercourse between this country and

its neighbours, Egypt and Tripoli, consists in sea or caravan routes, one of the latter running far to the south, in fact, almost along the edge of the desert.

The western part of Egypt, although mostly desert, is intersected by these roads, some of which run down into the very heart of Africa, crossing the southern part of the Libyan Desert on their way thither. All this stretch is quite barren, the fertile and densely populated part of Egypt lying only along the course of the Nile, which near the sea spreads out fan-like and empties its waters into the Mediterranean through many mouths.

At the outlet farthest west we find Alexandria, founded by Alexander the Great, once the site of a famous Pharos (lighthouse) and Library, and now one of the greatest Mediterranean seaports. It still boasts "Cleopatra's Needle" and "Pompey's Pillar" as historical trophies, is connected by rail and canal with the Nile and Cairo, and is full of interesting mementos of Greek, Roman, Egyptian, and Turkish occupation. Near another of the Nile mouths we find Rosetta, whose name conjures up Champollion's marvellous discovery; near another, Damietta, where Louis IX landed, the city which he offered to the Saracens after the defeat of Mansourah as the only ransom worthy of a king.

Beyond the mouths of the Nile and the site of Pelusium, we find Port Said, the entrance to the Suez Canal, — the great work of the French engineer De Lesseps, — although a canal connected the Red Sea and the Mediterranean fourteen centuries B. C. From Alexandria and Port Said several railways cross Lower Egypt and run to Cairo, thus affording the traveller as many opportunities as he wishes to visit any part of the fertile Delta. It is unnecessary to mention here Egypt's matchless attractions and the perennial fascination it exercises upon those who have some knowledge of its art, history, and wonderful remains. Those who are not yet familiar with this country can find no more delightful winter and home occupation than to read up on the subject a suffi-



*Le port d'Alexandrie vu des Catacombes du Mex*

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The Port of Alexandria, from the Catacombs of Mex.

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Natives with Crocodiles, the Nile  
p. 385



cient amount to understand and appreciate what they are going to see.

With a history which goes back to so remote an epoch that it is lost in utter obscurity, Egypt boasts of the grandest records of the past that the world owns. Here you can see the Pyramids, — the only one of the world's seven wonders which remains intact after more than five thousand years. It is conceded by savants, that the step pyramid of Denderah and the Sphinx of Gizeh are even older than the three great pyramids, which, by the way, are seen to best advantage by moonlight, when the horde of clamouring beggars and guides has disappeared, and from the summit of which it is a charming experience to watch the sun rise over the desert.

If you can follow the Mahmoodiah and Suez canals from one end to the other, you will undoubtedly gain considerable insight into the ways and manners of the natives, and by chartering a dahabiyeh and wintering on the Nile — stopping at any point you fancy along its banks — you will learn to understand why this was known as the land of the Lotus Eaters in Greek fables. There is now a new Cairo as well as the picturesque old Cairo founded by Saladin, — the new city boasting wide, palm-shaded avenues, while the old one has tortuous streets and latticed windows, and is alive with a dirty, noisy, but, to the foreigner, wholly delightful people, with donkeys, camels, and prancing horses galore. Indeed, there are said to be fifty thousand donkeys in Cairo alone, — donkeys so small that it seems absurd for a full-grown person to ride them; still on every donkey, never mind how diminutive, some person is seated or some huge burden cleverly balanced.

In Cairo, besides the Pyramids, Sphinx, and Boulak Museum, — where you will behold the greatest of the Pharaohs, Rameses the Great, — there is the "Castle of the Nile," where four hundred and eighty Mamelukes were murdered in 1811, one only escaping over the lofty parapet. This castle, by the way, is built from material torn from the great pyramids, which near by present the

appearance of gigantic staircases, but which were once coated with nicely fitted stones, so that their sides were as smooth as glass. In those days it would have been an impossibility to mount to the top as travellers do now, although at the expense, it is true, of considerable fatigue and at the risk of complete dislocation, unless their guides can be induced to hoist them up slowly and carefully.

The mosques of Cairo and the tombs of the sultans are other points of marked interest, while the bazaars are so bewitching that you are easily beguiled into spending far more money than you had at first intended.

Most travellers visit the obelisk of Heliopolis, the Tree of the Virgin near Cairo, and drive about along avenues shaded with sycamores and acacias, and frequented by all the Egyptian and foreign world of wealth and fashion.

Old Memphis with its huge recumbent statue of Rameses II, the picturesque shadoofs along the Nile, the native rafts supported on skin bottles, the boats with their great sails, the fields where camels are yoked to primitive ploughs, enliven a journey up the Nile, which at Cairo is spanned by a great bridge and at Assouan by the wonderful new dam, which, by preventing any waste of water and doling out the right supply, is maintaining the country in the best agricultural condition, thus increasing its productiveness and wealth to an almost fabulous degree.

The one great objection to this dam is that it often places the island of Philæ under water, and that the Nile waves dash against the columns of the Temple of Osiris, which travellers now visit at times in a rowboat. The action of the water is bound to undermine the columns which have stood for so many centuries, unless the necessary precautions are soon taken to preserve this priceless relic of the past.

Thebes, with the Temple of Luxor; Karnak, with its avenue of two thousand sphinxes, its huge gateway seventy feet high to the lintel, its obelisks, the great hall, with three hundred and thirty-four columns thirty-six feet in circumference and sixty-six feet high, all

decked with carvings and colours ; the rock-hewn Temple of Abou Simbel, with four statues of Rameses the Great which dwarf everything else ; the two seated colossi, one of which was vocal for a time ; the rock-hewn tombs, and the Nile cataracts, — are only a very few of the delights which await any tourist sufficiently fortunate to include Egypt in his itinerary.

## Chronology of North Africa

B. C.	A. D.
814 (?) Carthage founded by Elissa or Dido.	111-104 Jugurthine War.
600-550 Commercial extension. Wars in Africa and Sicily.	97 Cyrene bequeathed to Rome.
530 Independent from Tyre. Conquest of Sardinia.	46 Battle of Thapsus. All North Africa subject to Rome.
509 First commercial treaty with Rome.	30 Egypt a Roman Province.
500 Colonies in Africa.	117 A.D. Insurrection of Moors. Suppressed.
480-410 War in Sicily <i>vs.</i> Agrigentum and Syracuse.	122-125 Hadrian's visits.
405-398 Conquest of Sicily.	138 Moors invade Numidia.
368-340 Greek cities in Sicily free.	161 Era of prosperity in Africa.
323-30 Ptolemies in Egypt.	170 Moors cross Straits of Gibraltar.
310-289 Wars with Agrigentum.	203 Christian persecutions begun in Africa.
277-276 Syracuse summons Pyrrhus against Carthaginians. Failure.	217 Macrinus, an African, emperor.
264-241 First Punic War for possession of Sicily. Battles: Mylæ, Panormus, Drepanum. Regulus. Sicily, Corsica, and Sardinia lost to Carthage.	247 Public works begun to celebrate millennium of Rome's existence.
241-237 Mercenary revolt at Carthage. Salammbô.	250-256 Persecution of Christians.
236-219 Carthage conquers Spain.	260 Feuds of five peoples. Devastation.
218-201 Second Punic War for possession of Italy. Hannibal crosses Alps. Battles: Ticinus, Trebia, Lake Trasimene, Cannæ, Capua, Metaurus, Zama. Rome holds Italy, wins Spain, invades Africa.	305 Spread of Christianity.
183-150 Numidian War with Carthage. Rome interferes.	361 African provinces submit to Julian.
149-146 Third Punic War. Carthage destroyed.	370 Rebellion of Moors.
146-439 A.D. Roman Province of North Africa.	397-398 Gildon the Moor defeated by Stilicho, a Vandal.
	429 Vandals invade Africa.
	439-533 Vandal Kingdom in Africa. Founded by Genseric.
	476 All Northwest Africa in Vandal hands.
	534 Vandals driven from Africa. Under Eastern Emperor.
	646 Arabs or Saracens raid North Africa.
	697 Caliph destroys Carthage.
	711 Tarik invades Spain.
	750 All North Africa under Mos-

A. D.

- lem rule. Islamism replaces Christianity.
- 800-910 Rule of Aglabites.
- 914 Algiers founded.
- 1055 Moravides rule, invade Spain.
- 1153-1270 Almohades rule. Capital Tlemcen.
- 1270 Tunis besieged by Louis IX and Crusaders.
- 1342 Jews seek refuge in North Africa.
- 1505 Moors expelled from Spain become pirates.
- 1505-1509 Spain attempts to suppress piracy. Siege of Oran.
- 1516-1520 Algiers taken by Barbarossa for Turks.
- 1531 Tunis taken by Barbarossa for Turks.
- 1535 Charles V takes Tunis. Frees Christian captives.
- 1541 Charles V vs. Algiers.
- 1543-1560 Pirate Dragut and his exploits.
- 1551 Tripoli conquered by Turks.
- 1570-1571 Barbary States and Turks vs. Holy League. Battle of Lepanto.
- 1572-1573 Tunis taken by Don John of Austria.
- 1575 Tunis recovered by Turks. Bey appointed.
- 1578 King of Portugal invades Morocco. Battle of Alcazar.
- 1655 English under Blake reduce Tunis.
- 1662-1683 Tangiers in English hands.
- 1664-1684 Wars of France vs. Barbary States.
- 1705 Hussein dynasty founded at Tunis.
- 1741-1835 Tripoli independent under Hamet Bey and family.
- 1785-1801 Piratical depredations on American ships. Resistance.
- 1798-1799 Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt. Pyramids, Abukir (Nile).
- 1801-1802 English expel French

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- from Egypt and restore it to Turkey.
- 1803-1805 American War vs. Tripoli pirates.
- 1803-1811 Mehemet Ali. Destruction of Mamelukes.
- 1807 English occupy Alexandria.
- 1815 Final War of United States vs. Algiers pirates. Decatur.
- 1816 Algiers bombarded by English for piracy. Treaty. Christian slavery abolished by Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis.
- 1830 Algiers conquered by French.
- 1830-1846 French vs. Abd-el-Kader in Algeria.
- 1831-1840 Rebellion of Mehemet Ali in Egypt. Hereditary Paschalik established.
- 1835 Tripoli nominally under Sultan.
- 1840-1869 The Khedives of Egypt.
- 1851-1857 Kabyles' insurrections.
- 1856 Reforms at Tunis.
- 1860-1865 Napoleon III visits Algiers.
- 1864 Insurrections at Tunis.
- 1864-1870, 1879, 1881 Arab insurrections at Algiers.
- 1869 Suez Canal opened. De Lesseps.
- 1870-1883 Conquest of Soudan by English.
- 1871 Tunis integral part of Turkish Empire.
- 1875-1882 Egypt bankrupt. France and England control finances.
- 1879 Bey of Tunis defers to France.
- 1880 Commission in charge of Bey of Tunis's finances.
- 1881 Predatory incursions of Kroumirs on Algerian territory. War with France. Tunis under French Protectorate.
- 1882-1883 Arab revolts in Alexandria. English interfere.
- 1884-1885 Gordon's mission to Khartoum. His death. Relief expedition.

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A. D.  
1892- Abbas Khedive of Egypt.  
1885-1898 The Dervishes in  
Soudan. New Anglo-  
Egyptian movement for  
its recovery. Omdurman.

A. D.  
1898 Marchand expedition to  
Fashoda.  
1898-1901 Barrage of Nile at  
Assouan.  
1899 Anglo-Egyptian Condomi-  
nium in Soudan.

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about Journey; **Watson**, A Visit to Wazan, the Sacred City of Morocco; **White**, From Sphinx to Oracle; **Wilkin**, Among the Berbers of Algeria; **Workman**, Algeria Memories; **Wyse**, Winter in Tangiers and Home through Spain.

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## XXXI

### ·PAINTING

**PAINTING** is the representation, by means of colour and line upon a flat surface, of objects of nature and of the imagination. The pretty Greek legend which relates how a maiden traced her lover's profile upon the wall of her house when he came to bid her farewell ere starting for the wars, and how her father the potter filled in this outline with colour so that it would appear more life-like, does not, as some people suppose, account for the invention of painting, which was prehistoric. In fact, all primitive people made some use of the art, for we find traces of it on the rude stone implements of the cave-dwellers, on the pottery of the lake-dwellers, and on many of the most ancient art relics we possess.

There are various styles of painting, termed, according to the subject of which it treats, figure, genre, historical, portrait, landscape, animal, still-life, expressive, or decorative painting.

There are also different processes by which colour is used for decorative purposes. We hear, for instance, of *mosaic*, which is "inlaid work, wherein the effect of painting is produced by the use or combination of pieces of coloured stone or other hard substance, natural or artificial."

*Enamel* is a substance of the nature of glass, but more fusible and nearly opaque, used for highly polished surfaces.

*Stained glass* is window glass painted and fired, or coloured glass set in patterns to produce certain effects.

*Encaustic painting* is a process whereby wax is used instead of oil, and colours are fixed by heat. Sometimes the colours are applied hot, at others they are laid on

cold and a hot iron passed over them afterwards to produce the desired effect. This process was used for some of the house decorations at Pompeii, and was adopted by Schnorr, in recent times, for the decorations of the Residenz at Munich, where the Nibelungenlied is represented on the walls.

*Fresco painting* is the art of mural painting upon freshly laid plaster, with colours capable of resisting the caustic action of the lime. The Italian word "fresco" means fresh, for the work must be done while the plaster surface is still damp. This mode of painting was practised in Egypt, but brought to perfection in Italy. Properly done, it resists heat and damp, as is proved by ancient frescos which are still almost as perfect as when first made. As an artist had to finish his work before the plaster dried, and could not retouch it, great precision and skill were required for this style of work. Artists therefore generally drew cartoons, and often used a punch, or a pounce bag, to mark the design on the wall, thus maintaining the right proportions, even when proceeding in a very fragmentary way. Sometimes, in drying or under chemical action, colours changed, and the black Madonnas and saints, which so often puzzle the beholder, are due to this cause alone, and not at all to mental aberration on the part of the artist.

In *tempera*, or *distemper painting*, solid colours were used, slightly diluted in gum and water. The Italians call this dry fresco (*fresco secco*) to distinguish it from true fresco (*fresco buono*), as described above. It can be applied to wood, stone, plaster, etc., and is therefore often used for inside decoration, although it is not so durable as fresco.

*Oil painting* was invented by Van Eyck, and since his day colours, brushes, canvas, etc. have been vastly improved. Painters are no longer compelled to grind and mix their own colours, and not only is much valuable time thus saved, but better results can now be obtained with far less trouble.

In *pastel painting* coloured chalk is the medium used,

in *water colour* or *aquarelle* the paint is diluted in water, and in *stereochrome* colours are fixed on a plaster surface by profuse sprinkling with water and fluoric acid.

In the books in the list subjoined you can learn all about the processes used, the masters of painting, and the history of this art. The more you read and learn about this subject, the more interested you will become in it. Besides, a journey abroad offers unlimited and invaluable opportunities to study art, and the list of painters added to this chapter may serve as useful reference in the course of your art studies both at home and abroad.

As the oldest vestiges of extensive pictorial art are found in Egypt, it is there that we can best trace the gradual evolution of painting. This art was used by ancient Egyptians in connection with sculpture, for every carved or fashioned article in clay, wood, or stone was coloured. Even on flat surfaces a design was often scratched and the outline filled in with colours, which in many cases still retain their original brilliancy. The Egyptians knew naught of perspective, or of light and shade, and it is probably the strong sunlight of Egypt, casting such sharp shadows, which taught them their first art lesson, and determined the almost exclusive use of the silhouette form.

Nature setting in Egyptian paintings is generally indicated rather than depicted; so one must learn that a wavy line means water, that one tree or soldier may denote a forest or an army, and that a single object, standing as it were on top of another, is merely a mode of trying to convey a sense of distance. The Egyptians excelled in representing scenes from daily life, and the paintings they have left cast much light upon their customs, their mode of living, and the degree of civilization to which they had attained long before 3500 B.C. In depicting the gods, their treatment was much more conventional than in genre pictures, or even in historical scenes, of which a number have been preserved. The variety of their colours — mostly of a mineral nature, ground fine and mixed with water and gum — is really

wonderful, and in many of the tombs, and on the mummy cases, they still glow in all their pristine brilliancy.

The remains of Chaldo-Assyrian painting are very scanty. Still, we possess examples enough to ascertain that painting with them, as with the Egyptians, consisted mainly of silhouette outlines, and was used principally to represent the doings of gods and kings. Paintings were decorative, yet intended also as a record, and executed by means of a process of glazing, tiling, or enamelling, made necessary by the porous bricks of which most of their buildings were made, which would have absorbed and dulled colours otherwise applied. The remains of such tiling which have been recovered denote great skill in the process of manufacture, in the patterns used for ornamentation on large surfaces, as well as in subject and colour scheme.

From the valleys of the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates, art migrated across Asia Minor and the Ægean Sea to Greece, where already, in 2000 B. C., pottery was elaborately decorated. In the excavations in Crete and at Mycenæ fragments of skilful fresco-painting have also been found, showing that the people had already attained considerable perfection in its use. Besides, painting was employed in Greece very extensively in connection with sculpture, all the statues being elaborately tinted. The Greeks also used colour on flat surfaces to decorate their buildings, and in the Parthenon itself painting played a no inconsiderable part.

After the Persian wars painting made great progress, and when Agatharcos had discovered some of the rules for perspective and shade, even the philosophers began to study the laws of perspective very seriously. In the Ionic or Asiatic school, which flourished in the fifth century before Christ, we find such artists as Zeuxis and Parrhasius, of whose rivalry and skill such entertaining and characteristic anecdotes have come down to us. Pausias, another Greek artist of this time, is said to have introduced encaustic painting, which, however, did not supplant the tempera method.

None of the works of this age have remained intact; still, copies of some of them are thought to be found in Pompeii, where the "Release of Io by Hermes," for instance, is an example of the work of Nicias, a painter of Alexander's time. Apelles and Protogenes excelled in grace and precision, and are the last great artists of Ancient Greece.

In Italy we find traces of painting in the Etruscan tombs and pottery, where the decoration is often very elaborate. There is also the tempera decoration of an ancient sarcophagus, representing a battle between the Greeks and Amazons. Still, it is on the walls of Pompeii and Herculaneum that are found the best and oldest remains of Roman painting, most of the rest having succumbed to time, to barbarian invasions, or under the well-meant efforts of restorers. What we know of their work shows that Roman artists were not original, that they merely imitated Greek art, and that painting was used principally for decorative purposes.

With the advent of Christianity we have early Christian art, which is purely symbolical, and where but little attention is given to form. Next comes Byzantine art, with its long stiff figures, often against gold backgrounds, followed by Romanesque art, which retained some of the characteristic stiffness of the Byzantine school. The Gothic school, next in order, reached its highest development in Italy, where the free cities rivalled each other in the splendour of their churches and other public buildings; for Gothic architecture left "large wall surfaces, which afforded ample opportunity for wall paintings," and the spacious windows, filled with stained glass, were also utilised for decoration.

Painting on wall surfaces was mostly done in fresco, and while the earliest works show the influence of Byzantine art, after Cimabue the tendency is toward naturalism. How pleasing this tendency was to the general public is proved by the fact that one of Cimabue's paintings was carried in triumph through the town by his enraptured fellow-citizens. After Cimabue, Giotto is

credited with having had the most progressive influence, for he was one of the first to introduce accessories, such as conventional, wooden-like animals, shaving trees, and plaster of Paris mountains. Orcagna, whose startling frescos in the Campo Santo at Pisa still excite our wonder, used light, shadow, and perspective far more than any of his Italian predecessors. He also put much more action into his work than was countenanced by the Sienese school of painting, whose chief light, Duccio, is noted for the fineness of his hands and feet, and for the expression of his faces. In the Gothic period Rome contributed excellent mosaics, but other Italian schools, such as those of Verona and Padua, were content to imitate Giotto to the best of their ability.

Renaissance in art began in Italy about 1400, and marks a revival of the antique and of natural truth. Antique paintings having all perished, the painter could not, as the sculptor, study the work of former artists, therefore was obliged to revert to nature, which had served as model for the Greeks. One of the most interesting painters of this epoch is Fra Angelico, whose work is noted for "the devout religious sentiment in which it has never been excelled."

The Renaissance spread to Germany, France, and Spain during the fifteenth century, and a school of painting soon arose in the Netherlands, where the Van Eycks, by their invention of oil painting, solved some of the chief problems of painting, and secured "a fine colour, an aerial perspective, and true rendering of atmosphere and of light and shade." These perfections are embodied in the Ghent altar-piece, and their methods were speedily adopted by artists everywhere.

Under the patronage of the wealthy dukes of Burgundy, artists flourished; we therefore hear of sundry schools in the Netherlands, such as those of Ghent, Bruges, and Brabant, all of which contributed valuable paintings to what is generally termed Flemish Art. The early Dutch school was also rising rapidly, having its centre at Haarlem, where, in time, Memling did his best work.

German Renaissance retained the gold background, and had its headquarters at Cologne, although the Suan school soon developed in South Germany. But these schools were entirely eclipsed by the Nürnberg, whose master, Wohlgemuth, set the pace for art, not only in his own country but in Bohemia, Silesia, and Poland as well. In France, Spain, and Portugal, first the Flemish and then the Italian school showed its influence, and the most important work done was in the line of miniature painting for the illumination of manuscripts. As Spain and the Netherlands were often in communication, and were soon going to be under the same rule, Flemish painters often visited that country, and therefore gained considerable influence, although Spanish painters of this epoch already reveal the national tendency toward a brownish tone.

In Italy, as soon as Brunelleschi had discovered the laws of linear perspective, and anatomy came to be studied by artists as well as by physicians, there was a marked improvement in drawing. Florence retained the lead during the fifteenth century, when the Florentine school of painting has many important names on its roll, including Masaccio, the master of perspective, and Filippo Lippi, the first to portray individual faces in sacred pictures. Botticelli, Gozzoli, Ghirlandajo, and Verrocchio are also shining lights of this school and epoch, the latter being further noted as the teacher of Leonardo da Vinci. Meantime the Sienese school was doing good work, and the Umbrian artists were developing a characteristic sentimental type, while conforming to the standards of the Florentine school in other matters. Among the painters of Perugia and in Umbria was the father of Raphael, with Signorelli, Perugino, and Pinturicchio, who all deserve special attention.

The Paduan school of the same epoch is noted for a heaviness, most observable in the works of Squarcione, and for the foreshortening of Mantegna. Venice seemed loth to shake off Byzantine trammels, and for a long time her artists were mere craftsmen. Still, in Crivelli's work we find the first signs of Venetian colour, and the Bellinis

added a knowledge of light, atmosphere, and oil technique, which resulted in transparent and harmonious effects. The great painters of this Venetian school, besides those already mentioned, are Carpaccio, Catena, and the Sicilian, Antonello da Messina, by whom oil-painting was introduced into Italy. The Ferrara school of painting boasts of Tura, the Costas, Francia, and Viti, while the Lombards of that epoch have no artists of great importance.

High Renaissance (*cinque-cento*) extends from about 1500 to 1600, and in Italy gave rise to the finest works that have ever been produced. Most of its artists belong to the Florentine school, which trained Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, and Raphael, to name only the three greatest masters it produced. Leonardo da Vinci became head of the Academy at Milan, and his pupil Luini shows the effect of his teaching, as do many other painters whose names are less known.

The Roman school consists mainly of the pupils of Michael Angelo and Raphael, and at Siena, after art had been dormant for a century, it was revived by Sodoma and his pupils. Painters of Ferrara and Bologna are often considered pupils of Raphael, and are noted for their cool, pure colour, conventional composition, and use of landscape backgrounds. In Northern Italy the greatest master of this epoch was Correggio, although Parma produced good artists also. Next to the Florentine only, ranks the Venetian school, which sought "pictorial effects, and developed colour as it has been developed nowhere else in the world." The first artists were pupils of Bellini, and, armed with oil as a medium, they produced wonderful results. Palma Vecchio, Titian, Bordone, Tintoretto, and Veronese are the names which call up some of the finest works of art that human imagination can conceive.

The schools in Venetian subject territory offer such masters as Pordenone and Moretto, who are of course entirely eclipsed by the brilliant Venetian High Renaissance artists.



German painting reached its highest development in the early sixteenth century, and it was at Nürnberg that Dürer, its greatest artist, was born and did his best work, not only as a painter, but also as an etcher and engraver. After Dürer was gone, the Augsburg school proved most influential, and then came Holbein, Germany's most noted painter, who combined "fine detail with good ensemble." We hear also of an Alsacian school, and of the Saxon school, whose founder, Cranach, has left some queer, angular pictures.

The Decline of Painting began in Italy about 1530, but came only later in the northern countries. In the Netherlands we still find great artists like Matsys and Van Leyden, in France the Clouets and Primaticcio as court painters, while in Spain painting is represented mainly by portraits, one of the principal artists being Pacheco, the master of Velasquez.

"From a technical point of view, the seventeenth century is the Golden Age of Painting"; still, great names are no longer so plentiful, and local schools are more or less merged into the Eclectic, which "sought to combine the excellences of all schools, — Michael Angelo's line, Titian's colour, Correggio's light and shade, and Raphael's grace."

The Carracci brothers, who founded the Bologna Art Academy in 1580, started this movement, and their pupils, Domenichino and Guido Reni, show the effect of their teaching. The Eclectics were not alone, however, for the Naturalists also formed a strong faction, delighting in scenes of passion and bloodshed, and such dark shadow masses that they are known as Tenebrosi, or "Darklings." This school flourished principally at Naples, and its most noted names are those of Caravaggio, Ribera (the Spaniard), and Salvator Rosa.

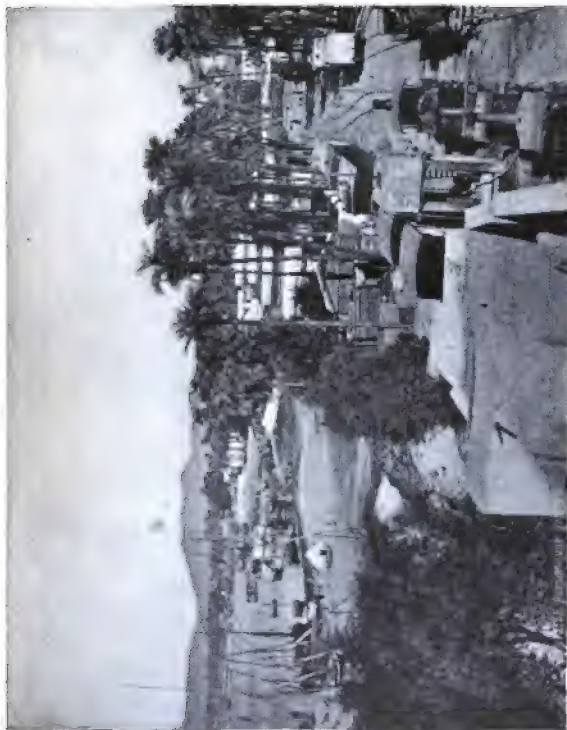
The great French painter of this epoch is Poussin, "founder of the classic element in French Art." Claude Lorraine, Le Brun — the artist of the Age of Louis XIV — Le Sueur, Mignard, and Philippe de Champaigne, all deserve mention also, as the greatest painters that the country produced at that time.

The seventeenth century was also the Golden Age of Spanish painting, when arose Herrera, Velasquez, "who perhaps achieved the highest technical perfection ever attained," Zurbaran, and Murillo, "in whose works the Spanish characteristics, realism and religious ecstasy, are gracefully blended with charming colour effects."

In Flanders, under the leadership of Rubens, the Antwerp school produced wonderful pictures. Rubens' figures "lack beauty of face and tenderness of feeling," as well as refinement in every sense of the word, but "no painter ever produced pictures more brilliant in line and colour." The other noted artists of this school are Van Dyck, Jordaens, and Teniers, to quote only three of its most famous members. In Holland painting was used chiefly for home decoration, hence we have numerous portraits and small panel pictures; landscape, cattle, and genre being the favourite themes of the artists. The great Dutch names are Hals, "one of the greatest portraitists of all times," and Rembrandt, "the master of light and shade." There are of course many other artists of note, such as Van der Helst, Ostade, Dow, etc.; but it is impossible to make note of them all in this brief sketch, in which we can only mention the famous landscape painters, Ruysdael and Hobbema; the cattle painters, Paul Potter and Cuyp, and the flower painter, Van Huysum.

The eighteenth century marks "the transition from the aristocratic art of the seventeenth century to the more democratic art of the nineteenth." In France, under the Regency, art assumed a frivolous character; the most important masters were Watteau, Van Loo, Boucher, Vernet, Chardin, and Greuze. In Italy we have a group of interesting artists chiefly of the Venetian school, while in England, after Lely and Kneller, the great English painters, Hogarth, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Gainsborough, Romney, Wilson, and Morland appear.

In modern art France wins the palm, chiefly because the state fosters the cultivation of painting. The classical reaction, which set in early in the nineteenth cen-



**General View of Assouan and the Nile**

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**Kriemhild denounce: Hagen, Nibelungenlied, Schnorr  
von Karolsfeld, Munich**

tury, has no abler exponent than David, director of art under the Republic and First Empire, and to his school belong several painters of considerable skill. Gros, who painted Napoleonic battles, ranks, however, among the Romanticists, who "saw in the expression of the painter's emotional nature the highest form of art." Géricault, Delacroix, Décamps, Fromentin, Ziem, and Regnault all belong to this school.

The Barbizon painters "represent the emotional impulse of Romanticism as applied to landscape." Corot, Rousseau, Dupré, Diaz, Daubigné, Troyon, Rosa Bonheur, Millet, and Jules Breton can be roughly classed in this category, which is also dubbed "the out-door" (*plein air*) school.

In French art we have, further, Delaroche, Horace Vernet, Ary Scheffer, Flandrin, Gleyre, Hamon, Aubert, Gérôme, Cabanel, Bouguereau, Lefebvre, Henner, Bonnat, Carolus-Duran, Baudry, and Puvis de Chavannes, some of whom are living still, and all of whom are represented in modern picture galleries. There are also painters of the Realistic school, such as Courbet, Meissonier, De Nèuille, Detaille, Ribot, Roybet, and Vollon, and those of the Impressionist school, founded in 1874, and numbering among its chief lights Manet, Monet, Pissaro, Degas, Renoir, Bastien-Lepage, Dagnan-Bouveret, and Fantin-Latour.

German modern painting has been influenced by the writings of Winckelmann, whose theories were put into practice by Mengs and Carstens. Then, a reaction against classicism was headed by Overbeck and by Cornelius, whose principal disciple, Kaulbach, belongs to the Munich School, while Schwind is considered the great light of the Düsseldorf school. In the middle of the nineteenth century another change took place, embodied by the works of Piloty, Makart, Max, Knaus, Defregger, Vautier, Ramberg, and Grützner; and after 1870 another change occurs. Historical painting now makes way for realism, and Menzel, Pettenkofen, Lenbach, and Leibl are the most representative men of this time. As for

impressionism, it started in Germany only after 1879, since when Liebermann, Uhde, Klinger, Böcklin, and Munkacsy have been influenced by its tendencies.

English art in the early nineteenth century was mostly confined to portraiture, and Raeburn, Lawrence, Copley, West, and Blake were the most important painters. In genre painting we have the works of Wilkie, Mulready, Collins, Newton, and Frith; in landscape, those of Turner, Constable, and Cox. In 1848 a reaction set in, and the Pre-Raphaelites, Rossetti, Holman Hunt, Burne-Jones, Millais, and Leighton, painted, or are still painting, pictures exhibited in contemporary art exhibitions, where they are always received with favour and viewed with interest.

Spanish modern painting claims Fortuny and Madrazo; the Italian, Segantini, Michetti, De Nittis, and Boldoni; while the Scandinavian countries have Johansen, Zorn, and Thaulow, and Russia Vereshchagin for military subjects, Rapin for historical representations, and Maliavini for figure work.

## Table of Art History

### *Oriental*

Babylonian . . . . .	C. 6000-500 B. C.
Egyptian . . . . .	C. 5000- 50 B. C.
Assyrian . . . . .	C. 1500-600 B. C.
Hittite . . . . .	C. 1500-700 B. C.
Phoenician . . . . .	C. 1500- 50 B. C.
Jewish . . . . .	C. 1000 B. C.- 70 A. D.
Persian . . . . .	C. ? B. C.-600 A. D.

### *Western*

Pelagic, Greek . . . . .	C. 2500-800 B. C.
Hellenic, Greek . . . . .	C. 1000-100 B. C.
Etruscan, Italic . . . . .	C. 1000-200 B. C.
Roman . . . . .	C. 300 B. C.-400 A. D.



Wagner, Krämer  
pp. 410, 484



Rear View of Cathedral, Cologne  
pp. 18, 155, 456, 462, 464



*Christian*

Early Christian . . . . .	c. 100- 800 A. D.
Byzantine . . . . .	c. 400-1450 A. D.
Romanesque . . . . .	c. 800-1200 A. D.
Gothic . . . . .	c. 1150-1450 A. D.
Renaissance . . . . .	c. 1400-1700 A. D.
Modern . . . . .	c. 1700-present.

**Alphabetical List of European Painters**

The abbreviations are A., Aretino; B., Bologna; C., Cremona; F., Florence; Fer., Ferrara; G., Genoa; L., Lucca; M., Milan; Mod., Modena; Mes., Messina; N., Naples; P., Pisa; Pad., Padua; Pav., Pavia; R., Rome; Rav., Ravenna; S., Siena; U., Umbria; V., Venice; Ver., Verona; Vic., Vicenza.

Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Abbate . . . . .	Italian, Mod.	1512-1571
Aelst . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1620-1679
Aetion . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 4th cent. B. C.
Agatharcos . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	5th cent. B. C.
Aimé-Morot . . . . .	French . . . . .	1850-
Albani . . . . .	Italian, B.	1578-1660
Alberti . . . . .	Italian, F.	1404-1472
Albertinelli . . . . .	Italian, F.	1474-1515
Aldegrevier . . . . .	German . . . . .	1502-1562
Alemannus . . . . .	German, V.	15th cent.
Aligny . . . . .	French . . . . .	1798-1871
Allan, D. . . . .	British . . . . .	1744-1796
Allan, Sir William . . . . .	British . . . . .	1782-1850
Allori, A. . . . .	Italian, F.	1535-1607
Allston . . . . .	American-British . . . . .	1779-1843
Alma-Tadema . . . . .	British . . . . .	1836-
Altdorfer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1488-1538
Alvarez . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	fl. 1638
Amberger . . . . .	German . . . . .	1490-1563
Angelico (Fra) . . . . .	Italian, F.	1387-1455
Anselmi . . . . .	Italian, S.	1491-1554
Antiochus Gabinius . . . . .	Roman . . . . .	c. 5th cent. B. C.
Antonello da Messina . . . . .	Italian, N.	1414-1493
Antonio Veneziano . . . . .	Italian, V.	1490-1540
Apelles . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 356-308 B. C.
Apollodorus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	5th cent. B. C.
Aranda . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	modern
Aretino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1333-1410
Aristides . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 5th cent. B. C.
Arpino . . . . .	Italian, R.	1560-1640
Ary Scheffer . . . . .	French . . . . .	1765-1858
Arz . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1837-1890
Aubert . . . . .	French . . . . .	1824-
Backer . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1608-1651
Backhuysen . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1631-1708

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Bagnacavallo . . . . .	Italian, R.	1484-1542
Baker . . . . .	British	fl. 1768
Baldovinetti . . . . .	Italian	1427-1499
Baldung . . . . .	German	c. 1476-1552
Bargue . . . . .	French	-1883
Baroccio . . . . .	Italian, R.	1528-1612
Barry (Sir) . . . . .	British	1741-1806
Bartolo . . . . .	Italian, S.	1363-1422
Bartolommeo, B. (Fra) . . . . .	Italian, F.	1475-1517
Bartolommeo (della Gatta) . . . . .	Italian, A.	1408-1491
Basaiti . . . . .	Italian, V.	c. 1490-1521
Bassano, F. . . . .	Italian, V.	1500-1591
Bassano, J. . . . .	Italian, V.	1510-1592
Bassano, L. . . . .	Italian	1558-1623
Bastert . . . . .	Dutch	modern
Bastien-Lepage . . . . .	French	1848-1884
Batoni . . . . .	Italian, R.	1708-1787
Baudry . . . . .	French	1828-1886
Beccafumi . . . . .	Italian, S.	1486-1551
Beccera . . . . .	Spanish	c. 1520-1570
Becker, C. . . . .	German	1810-1872
Beechey (Sir) . . . . .	British	1753-1839
Bega . . . . .	Dutch	1620-1664
Begas, A. . . . .	German	1794-1854
Beham, B. . . . .	German	1502-1540
Beham, H. S. . . . .	German	1500-1550
Bellangé . . . . .	French	1800-1866
Bellini, Gentile . . . . .	Italian, V.	1421-1507
Bellini, Giovanni . . . . .	Italian, V.	1426-1516
Bellini, Jacopo . . . . .	Italian, V.	c. 1400-1464
Beltraffio . . . . .	Italian	1467-1516
Benjamin Constant . . . . .	French	1845-
Béraud . . . . .	French	modern
Berchem . . . . .	Dutch	1620-1683
Berettini ( <i>see</i> Cortona) . . . . .	Italian	1596-1669
Berne-Bellecour . . . . .	French	1838-
Berruguete . . . . .	Spanish	1480-1561
Bertin . . . . .	French	1775-1842
Besnard . . . . .	French	modern
Bida . . . . .	French	1813-
Billet . . . . .	French	modern
Bink . . . . .	German	c. 1490-1568
Bird . . . . .	British	1762-1819
Bissolo . . . . .	Italian, V.	1492-1530
Björck . . . . .	Scandinavian	modern
Blake . . . . .	British	1757-1827
Blanchard . . . . .	French	1600-1638
Blasdal . . . . .	Spanish	1497-1557
Bles . . . . .	Flemish	1480-1550
Bloemart . . . . .	Dutch	1564-1658
Blommers . . . . .	Dutch	1845-
Böcklin . . . . .	Swiss	1827-1901
Boit . . . . .	British	1663-1727
Bol . . . . .	Dutch	1611-1681
Boldoni . . . . .	Italian	modern

Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Boltraffio . . . . .	Italian, M.	1467-1516
Bone . . . . .	British	1755-1834
Bonfiglio . . . . .	Italian	1425-1496
Bonheur, A. . . . .	French	1824-1884
Bonheur, Rosa . . . . .	French	1822-1899
Bonifazio, I. . . . .	Italian, V.	1490-1540
Bonifazio, II. . . . .	Italian, V.	-1553
Bonifazio, III. . . . .	Italian, V.	c. 1555-1579
Bonington . . . . .	British	1801-1828
Bonnat . . . . .	French	1833-
Bonsignori . . . . .	Italian	1455-1519
Bonvin . . . . .	French	1817-1887
Bordone . . . . .	Italian, V.	1500-1571
Borgognone . . . . .	Italian, M.	1450-1524
Bosboom . . . . .	Dutch	1817-1891
Bosch . . . . .	Dutch	1460-1516
Both, J. . . . .	Dutch	1610-1662
Botticelli . . . . .	Italian, F.	1446-1510
Boucher . . . . .	French	1703-1770
Boudin . . . . .	French	modern
Boughton . . . . .	English	1834-
Bouguereau . . . . .	French	1825-1905
Boulanger, H. . . . .	Flemish	modern
Boulanger, L. . . . .	French	1806-1867
Bourdichon . . . . .	French	1457-1521
Bourdon . . . . .	French	1616-1671
Bouts . . . . .	Flemish	1399-1475
Breton, J. . . . .	French	1827-
Breughel, I. Sr. . . . .	Flemish	1530-1569
Breughel, II. . . . .	Flemish	1564-1637
Breughel, III, J. . . . .	Flemish	1568-1625
Bril, P. . . . .	Flemish	1556-1626
Bronzino . . . . .	Italian, F.	1502-1672
Brouwer . . . . .	Dutch	1605-1638
Brown, A. . . . .	British	fl. 1675
Brown, F. M. . . . .	British	1821-1893
Brunelleschi . . . . .	Italian	1379-1446
Buffalmacco . . . . .	Italian, P.	c. 1300-1351
Bugiardini . . . . .	Italian, F.	1475-1554
Buonarrotti ( <i>see</i> Michael Angelo) . . . . .	Italian, F.	1475-1564
Burckmair . . . . .	German	1473-1559
Burne-Jones . . . . .	English	1833-1898
Cabanel . . . . .	French	1823-1889
Caillebotte . . . . .	French	modern
Calcott (Sir) . . . . .	British	1776-1831
Calderon . . . . .	British	1833-1898
Calvaert . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1540-1610
Campin . . . . .	Flemish	15th cent.
Canaletto, A. . . . .	Italian, V.	1697-1768
Cano . . . . .	Spanish	1601-1667
Caravaggio, M. . . . .	Italian, N.	1569-1609
Carolus-Duran . . . . .	French	1837-
Caroto . . . . .	Italian	1470-1546

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Carpaccio . . . . .	Italian, V.	1450-1522
Carracci, Agos. . . . .	Italian	1558-1602
Carracci, Anni. . . . .	Italian, B.	1560-1609
Carracci, L. . . . .	Italian, B.	1555-1619
Carrière . . . . .	French	1754-1798
Carstens . . . . .	German	1754-1798
Castagno . . . . .	Italian, F.	1390-1457
Castro . . . . .	Italian, N.	1597-1687
Catena . . . . .	Italian, V.	1500-1530
Cattermole . . . . .	British	1800-1868
Cavazzola . . . . .	Italian	1468-1522
Cazin . . . . .	French	1840-1901
Cespedes . . . . .	Spanish	1538-1608
Champagne . . . . .	Franco-Flemish	1602-1674
Champmartin . . . . .	French	1797-1883
Chardin . . . . .	French	1699-1779
Chavannes, Puvis de . . . . .	French	1824-1898
Chintreuil . . . . .	French	1814-1873
Cimabue . . . . .	Italian, F.	c. 1240-1300
Cima da Conegliano . . . . .	Italian, V.	1489-1508
Claude Lorraine (Gelée). . . . .	French	1600-1682
Clays . . . . .	Flemish	1819-
Clouet, F. . . . .	French	c. 1516-1572
Clouet, J., Jr. . . . .	French	1485-1541
Cocxie (or Coxcyen) . . . . .	Flemish	1499-1592
Coello . . . . .	Spanish	c. 1621-1693
Cogniet . . . . .	French	1794-1880
Cole . . . . .	British	1833-1893
Collins, R. . . . .	British	1755-1831
Collins, W. . . . .	British	1788-1847
Constable . . . . .	British	1776-1837
Constant, Benjamin . . . . .	French	1845-
Copley . . . . .	British	1737-1815
Coques . . . . .	Flemish	1618-1684
Cormon . . . . .	French	1845-
Cornelis . . . . .	Dutch	1562-1638
Cornelius . . . . .	German	1783-1867
Corot . . . . .	French	1796-1875
Correggio . . . . .	Italian, P.	1494-1534
Cortona . . . . .	Italian	1596-1669
Cossa . . . . .	Italian	1430-1480
Costa . . . . .	Italian, Fer.	1460-1536
Cotes . . . . .	British	1725-1770
Cotman . . . . .	British	1782-1842
Cottet . . . . .	French	modern
Courbet . . . . .	French	1819-1877
Cousin . . . . .	French	1500-1589
Couture . . . . .	French	1815-1879
Cox, D. . . . .	British	1783-1859
Coypel, A. . . . .	French	1661-1722
Coypel, N. . . . .	French	1628-1707
Cozens . . . . .	British	1752-1799
Cranach, Jr. . . . .	German	1515-1586
Cranach, Sr. . . . .	German	1472-1553
Crawhall . . . . .	British	modern

Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Crayer . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1582-1669
Credi . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1459-1537
Cristus . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	-1471
Crivelli . . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	1468-1493
Crome, J. B. . . . .	British . . . . .	1793-1842
Crome (Old) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1768-1821
Cruikshank . . . . .	British . . . . .	1792-1878
Cuyp . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1605-1691
Dagnan-Bouveret . . . . .	French . . . . .	1852-
Daubigné . . . . .	French . . . . .	1817-1878
David, G. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1483-1523
David, J. . . . .	French . . . . .	1748-1825
Décamps . . . . .	French . . . . .	1803-1860
Deelen . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	17th cent.
Defregger . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1825-
Degas . . . . .	French . . . . .	1834-
Delacroix, F. . . . .	French . . . . .	1798-1863
Delaroche, P. . . . .	French . . . . .	1797-1856
Delaunay . . . . .	French . . . . .	1828-1892
De Neuville . . . . .	French . . . . .	1836-1885
De Nittis . . . . .	Italian, N. . . . .	1846-1884
Denner . . . . .	German . . . . .	1685-1749
Detaille . . . . .	French . . . . .	1848-
Devéria . . . . .	French . . . . .	1805-1865
Dewint . . . . .	British . . . . .	1784-1849
Diana . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1500-
Diaz de la Pena . . . . .	French . . . . .	1809-1876
Diepenbeeck . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1596-1675
Dionysius . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	middle of 5th cent. B. C.
Dobson, W. C. T. . . . .	British . . . . .	fl. 1860
Dolci . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1616-1686
Domenichino . . . . .	Italian, B. . . . .	1581-1641
Domingo . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	modern
Doré . . . . .	French . . . . .	1833-1883
Dossi, G. . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1479-1541
Dou or Dow . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1613-1675
Du Breuil . . . . .	French . . . . .	1561-1602
Duccio di Buoninsegna . . . . .	Italian, S. . . . .	1260-1320
Duez . . . . .	French . . . . .	1843-1896
Du Jardin . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1625-1678
Dupré, Julien . . . . .	French . . . . .	1851-
Dupré, Jules . . . . .	French . . . . .	1812-1889
Dürer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1471-1528
Dyck, Van . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1599-1641
Eastlake (Sir) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1793-1865
Eeckhout . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1621-1674
Elmore . . . . .	British . . . . .	1815-1881
Elzheimer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1578-1620
Ender, E. . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1824-
Etty . . . . .	British . . . . .	1787-1849
Euphranor . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	375-335 B. C.
Eupompos . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	4th cent. B. C.
Everdingen . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1621-1675

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Eyck, H. van . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1366-1426
Eyck, J. van . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1380-1440
Fabius . . . . .	Italian, R. . . . .	fl. c. 300 B. C.
Fabiano . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	1360-1440
Fabritius . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1624-1654
Faed, T. . . . .	British . . . . .	1826-1900
Fantin-Latour . . . . .	French . . . . .	1836-
Favretto . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	modern
Ferrara . . . . .	Italian, L. . . . .	1484-1549
Fielding . . . . .	British . . . . .	1787-1855
Flore . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	15th cent.
Fiorenzo di Lorenzo . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	1444-1520
Flandrin . . . . .	French . . . . .	1809-1864
Flinck . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1615-1660
Floris . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1517-1570
Foppa . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1492
Forain . . . . .	French . . . . .	modern
Fortuny . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1841-1874
Fouquet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1415-1483
Fragonard . . . . .	French . . . . .	1732-1823
Français . . . . .	French . . . . .	1814-1897
Francesca . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	1415-1492
Francia, F. . . . .	Italian, B. . . . .	1450-1517
Franciabigio . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1482-1525
Francken Family . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	16th cent.
Fredi . . . . .	Italian, S. . . . .	1330-1410
Fréminet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1567-1619
Frère . . . . .	French . . . . .	1819-1855
Friant . . . . .	French . . . . .	modern
Frith . . . . .	British . . . . .	1819-
Fromentin . . . . .	British . . . . .	1820-1876
Frost, W. . . . .	British . . . . .	1810-1877
Fuseli . . . . .	British . . . . .	1741-1825
Fyt . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1609-1661
Gaddi, A. . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1332-1396
Gaddi, T. . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1300-1366
Gainsborough . . . . .	British . . . . .	1727-1788
Gallait, L. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1810-1887
Garofalo . . . . .	Italian, Fer. . . . .	1481-1539
Geldorp . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1553-1616
Gentile da Fabriano . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	c. 1360-1440
Gérard, F. . . . .	French . . . . .	1770-1837
Géricault . . . . .	French . . . . .	1791-1824
Gérôme . . . . .	French . . . . .	1824-
Gervex . . . . .	French . . . . .	1848-
Ghirlandajo, D. . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1449-1494
Ghirlandajo, R. . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1483-1561
Giampietrino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	fl. 1520-1540
Gifford, S. . . . .	British . . . . .	1735-1807
Giordano . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1632-1705
Giorgione . . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	1478-1511
Giotto . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	fl. 14th cent.
Giotto di Bondone . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1266-1336

Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Giovanni da Milano . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	fl. 1366
Giovanni da Udine . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1487-1564
Girodet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1767-1824
Girtin . . . . .	British . . . . .	1775-1802
Giulio Romano . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1492-1546
Gleyre . . . . .	French . . . . .	1806-1874
Goes . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1405-1482
Gorgasos . . . . .	Roman . . . . .	c. 493 B. C.
Goya y Lusientes . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1746-1828
Goyen . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1596-1666
Gozzoli . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1420-1498
Granacci . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1477-1543
Grandi, G. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1491-1531
Greuze . . . . .	French . . . . .	1725-1805
Gros (Baron) . . . . .	French . . . . .	1771-1835
Grünewald . . . . .	German . . . . .	1460-1530
Grützner . . . . .	German . . . . .	1846-
Guardi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1712-1793
Guercino . . . . .	Italian, B. . . . .	1591-1666
Guérin . . . . .	French . . . . .	1774-1833
Guido Reni . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1575-1642
Guido da Siena . . . . .	Italian, S. . . . .	fl. 1281
Guthrie . . . . .	British . . . . .	modern
Hals, F. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1580-1666
Hamilton, G. . . . .	British . . . . .	1730-1797
Hamon . . . . .	French . . . . .	1821-1874
Harding . . . . .	British . . . . .	1798-1863
Harpignies . . . . .	French . . . . .	1819-
Haydon . . . . .	British . . . . .	1786-1846
Head . . . . .	British . . . . .	-1801
Hébert . . . . .	French . . . . .	1817-
Heem, J. van . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1603-1650
Heemskirck . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1498-1574
Helst, Van der . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1613-1670
Henner . . . . .	French . . . . .	1829-
Herkomer . . . . .	British . . . . .	1849-
Herrera, Sr. . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1576-1656
Herrera, Jr. . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1622-1685
Heyden . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1637-1712
Hobbema . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1638-1709
Hogarth . . . . .	British . . . . .	1697-1764
Holbein, Sr. . . . .	German . . . . .	1460-1524
Holbein, Jr. . . . .	German and British . . . . .	1498-1543
Holl . . . . .	British . . . . .	1845-1888
Hondecoeter . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1636-1695
Hooch . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	c. 1632-1681
Hooghe . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1628-1671
Hook . . . . .	British . . . . .	1819-1860
Hoppner . . . . .	British . . . . .	1758-1810
Hornell . . . . .	British . . . . .	modern
Huet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1804-1869
Hunt, W. H. . . . .	British . . . . .	1790-1864
Huysmans . . . . .	Franco-Flemish . . . . .	1648-1724
Huysum, Van . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1682-1749

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Imola . . . . .	Italian, B. . . . .	1494-1550
Ingres . . . . .	French . . . . .	1780-1867
Iriate . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1620-1685
Isabey . . . . .	French . . . . .	1767-1855
Israels . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1824-
Jacque . . . . .	French . . . . .	1813-1894
Janssens . . . . .	Dutch and British . . . . .	1590-1662
Janszoon ( <i>see</i> Mierevelt)	Dutch and British . . . . .	1567-1641
Jerichau-Baumann . . . . .	German . . . . .	1619-1881
Joannes . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1523-1579
Johansen . . . . .	Scandinavian . . . . .	modern
Jongkind . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1819-1891
Jordaens . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1593-1678
Justus van Ghent . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1410-1475
Kalf . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1630-1693
Kauffmann, Angelica . . . . .	British and German . . . . .	1741-1807
Kaulbach . . . . .	German . . . . .	1805-1874
Keyser . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1596-1679
Klinger . . . . .	German . . . . .	1857-
Knaus . . . . .	German . . . . .	1829-
Kneller (Sir) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1646-1723
Knight . . . . .	British . . . . .	fl. 1636-1844
Koninck, P. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1619-1689
Krämer . . . . .	German . . . . .	modern
Kulmbach . . . . .	German . . . . .	1485-1522
Kunz . . . . .	German . . . . .	14th cent.
Lancret . . . . .	French . . . . .	1690-1743
Landseer, (Sir) Edwin . . . . .	British . . . . .	1802-1873
Largillière . . . . .	French . . . . .	1656-1746
Lastman . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1583-1633
Laurens . . . . .	French . . . . .	1838-
Lavéry . . . . .	British . . . . .	modern
Lawrence (Sir) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1769-1830
Lawson . . . . .	British . . . . .	1851-1882
Le Brun, C. . . . .	French . . . . .	1619-1690
Le Brun (Mrs.) . . . . .	French . . . . .	1755-1842
Lefebvre, J. J. . . . .	French . . . . .	1834-
Legros . . . . .	French . . . . .	1837-
Leibl . . . . .	German . . . . .	1844-1900
Leighton (Sir) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1830-1896
Leloir . . . . .	French . . . . .	1843-1884
Lely (Sir) . . . . .	Flemish and British . . . . .	1617-1680
Lenbach . . . . .	German . . . . .	1836-
Lenepveu . . . . .	French . . . . .	1819-1898
Leonardo da Vinci . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1452-1519
Lerolle . . . . .	French . . . . .	1848-
Leslie, C. R. . . . .	British . . . . .	1794-1859
Lessing . . . . .	German . . . . .	1809-1880
Le Sueur . . . . .	French . . . . .	1616-1655
Lethière . . . . .	French . . . . .	1760-1832
Leutze . . . . .	German . . . . .	1816-1858



Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Lewis . . . . .	British . . . . .	1805-1876
Leyden, Van . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1494-1533
Leys (Baron) . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1814-1869
Lhermitte . . . . .	French . . . . .	1844-
Liberale da Verona . . . . .	Italian, Ver. . . . .	1451-1536
Libri . . . . .	Italian, Ver. . . . .	1474-1556
Liebermann . . . . .	German . . . . .	1849-
Liljefors . . . . .	Scandinavian . . . . .	
Lippi (Fra) . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1457-1504
Lippi, F. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1406-1469
Lombard or Sustermann . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1506-1566
Lorenzetti, A. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1323-c. 1345
Lorenzetti, P. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	fl. 1348
Lorraine . . . . .	French and Italian . . . . .	1600-1682
Lotto . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1480-1556
Luini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1475-1533
Mabuse . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1470-1532
Madrazo, F. . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1815-1894
Madrazo, R. . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1841-
Maes . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1632-1693
Makart . . . . .	German . . . . .	1840-1884
Maliavini . . . . .	Russian . . . . .	modern
Manet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1833-1883
Mansueti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1450-1500
Mantegna . . . . .	Italian, P. . . . .	1431-1506
Maratta . . . . .	Italian, R. . . . .	1625-1713
Marconi . . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	fl. 1505-1520
Marilhat . . . . .	French . . . . .	1811-1847
Maris, J. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1837-
Maris, M. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1835-
Maris, W. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1839-
Martin, J. . . . .	British . . . . .	1789-1854
Martino, S. . . . .	Italian, S. . . . .	1283-1344
Masaccio, T. . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	fl. 1401-1428
Masolino . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1383-1447
Matsys . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1466-1531
Mauve . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1838-1888
Max . . . . .	German . . . . .	1840-
Mazo . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1610-1667
Mazzolino . . . . .	Italian, B. . . . .	1481-1530
Meer of Delft . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1658-1705
Meire . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	fl. 1450
Meissonier . . . . .	French . . . . .	1815-1891
Meister . . . . .	German . . . . .	1450
Melozzo da Forlì . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	1438-1494
Melville . . . . .	British . . . . .	modern
Memling . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1425-1495
Memmi . . . . .	Italian, S. . . . .	1283-1344
Mengs . . . . .	German and Spanish . . . . .	1728-1779
Menzel . . . . .	German . . . . .	1815-
Mesdag . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1831-1902
Messina . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1410-1493
Metrodorus . . . . .	Roman . . . . .	B. C.
Metsu . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1630-1667

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Mettling . . . . .	French	modern
Michael Angelo . . . . .	Italian, F.	1475-1564
Michallon . . . . .	French	1796-1822
Michel . . . . .	French	1763-1842
Michetti . . . . .	Italian	1851-
Mierevelt . . . . .	Dutch	1567-1641
Mieris, F., Jr. . . . .	Dutch	1689-1763
Mignard . . . . .	French	1610-1695
Millais (Sir) . . . . .	British	1829-1896
Millet, J. F. . . . .	French	1814-1875
Miranda . . . . .	Spanish	1614-1685
Molyn . . . . .	Dutch	1600-1661
Monet . . . . .	French	1840-
Montagna, Bar., Sr. . . . .	Italian, Vic.	1460-1523
Montenard . . . . .	French	modern
Moore, A. . . . .	British	1840-1893
Moore, H. . . . .	British	1831-1895
Morales . . . . .	Spanish	1515-1586
Morelli . . . . .	Italian	1826-1901
Moretto . . . . .	Italian	1498-1555
Morland . . . . .	British	1763-1804
Moro . . . . .	Flemish	1512-1578
Moroni, F. . . . .	Italian, Ver.	1474-1529
Moroni, G. . . . .	Italian	1510-1578
Morton . . . . .	British	modern
Mostert . . . . .	Flemish	1474-1556
Muller, C. . . . .	British	1812-1845
Mulready . . . . .	British	1786-1863
Munkacsy . . . . .	German	1846-1900
Murillo . . . . .	Spanish	1617-1682
Nasmyth, A. . . . .	British	1758-1840
Nasmyth, P. . . . .	British	1787-1831
Nattier . . . . .	French	1685-1766
Navarette . . . . .	Spanish	1526-1579
Navez . . . . .	Flemish	1787-1869
Neer, A. . . . .	Dutch	1619-1683
Nelli . . . . .	Italian, U.	15th cent.
Netscher, K. . . . .	Dutch	1639-1684
Netscher, Kon. . . . .	Dutch	1669-1722
Neuchatel . . . . .	Flemish	1527-1590
Neuhuys . . . . .	Dutch	1844-
Neuville, De . . . . .	French	1836-1885
Newton . . . . .	British	1795-1835
Niccolo . . . . .	Italian	1430-1502
Nicias . . . . .	Greek	348-308 B. C.
Nicol, E. . . . .	British	1825-
Nicomachus . . . . .	Greek	c. 400 B. C.
Nittis, De . . . . .	Italian	1846-1884
Noort, van . . . . .	Flemish	1562-1641
Oggiono . . . . .	Italian	1470-1540
Oost, van, Sr. . . . .	Flemish	1600-1671
Oost, van, Jr. . . . .	Flemish	1639-1713
Opie . . . . .	British	1761-1807

Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Orcagna . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1308-1368
Orchardson . . . . .	English . . . . .	1835-
Orley . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1493-1527
Ostade, A. van . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1610-1685
Overbeck . . . . .	German . . . . .	1789-1869
Pacchia . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1477
Pacchiarotti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1474-1540
Pacheco . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1571-1654
Padovanino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1590-1650
Palma (Vecchio) . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1480-1528
Palma, Jr. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1544-1628
Palmaroli . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	fl. 1811
Pamphilus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	390-350 B. C.
Panetti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1460-1511
Paolino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1490-1547
Parmigianino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1504-1540
Parrhasius . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	fl. 400 B. C.
Parsons . . . . .	British . . . . .	1847-
Pater . . . . .	French . . . . .	1695-1736
Patinir . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1490-1524
Pausias . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	350 B. C.
Pencz . . . . .	German . . . . .	1500-1550
Penni . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1488-1528
Pereal . . . . .	French . . . . .	-1528
Perino del Vaga . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1501-1547
Perugino . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	1447-1524
Peruzzi . . . . .	Italian, R. . . . .	1481-1536
Pettenkofen . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1822-1889
Piero di Cosimo . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1462-1521
Piloty . . . . .	German . . . . .	1826-1886
Pils . . . . .	French . . . . .	1813-1875
Pinturicchio . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	1454-1513
Piombo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1485-1545
Pisano, V. (or Pisanello) . . . . .	Italian, Ver. . . . .	1380-1452
Pissaro . . . . .	French . . . . .	1830-
Pixis . . . . .	German . . . . .	1831-
Pizzolo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	fl. 1470
Plydenwurff . . . . .	German . . . . .	16th cent.
Poggenbeck . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	modern
Pointelin . . . . .	French . . . . .	modern
Pollajuolo, A. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1429-1498
Polygnotus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	fl. 450 B. C.
Pontorno . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1494-1557
Poorter . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	fl. 1635
Pordenone, G. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1483-1538
Potter . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1625-1654
Pourbus, P. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1510-1584
Poussin, G. . . . .	French . . . . .	1613-1675
Poynter . . . . .	British . . . . .	1836-
Pradilla . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1847-
Previtali . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1480-1525
Primaticcio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1504-1507
Protogenes . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	330-300 B. C.
Prout . . . . .	British . . . . .	1784-1852

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Prud'hon . . . . .	French . . . . .	1758-1823
Puis de Chavannes . . . . .	French . . . . .	1824-1898
Quellimus, E. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1609-1678
Quellimus, J. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1629-1715
Raeburn (Sir) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1756-1823
Raffaelli . . . . .	French . . . . .	1850-
Ramberg . . . . .	German . . . . .	1819-1875
Raphael Sanzio . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1483-1520
Rapin . . . . .	Russian . . . . .	modern
Ravestyn . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1572-1657
Regnault, H. . . . .	French . . . . .	1843-1871
Regnault, J. B. . . . .	French . . . . .	1754-1829
Reid, Sir G. . . . .	British . . . . .	1841-
Rembrandt . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1607-1669
René of Anjou . . . . .	French . . . . .	1409-1481
Renoir . . . . .	French . . . . .	1841-
Reynolds (Sir) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1723-1792
Ribalta, F. . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1550-1628
Ribera, J. . . . .	Spanish-Italian . . . . .	1588-1656
Ribera, Roman . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	modern
Ribot . . . . .	French . . . . .	1823-1891
Richards . . . . .	British . . . . .	fl. 1768
Rico . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1850-
Rigaud, H. . . . .	French . . . . .	1659-1743
Rincon . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1446-1500
Robert-Fleury . . . . .	French . . . . .	1794-1835
Robert, Léopold . . . . .	French . . . . .	1794-1835
Roche . . . . .	British . . . . .	modern
Rochegrosse . . . . .	French . . . . .	1859-
Roelas . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1558-1625
Roll . . . . .	French . . . . .	1847-
Romanino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1485-1566
Rombouts . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1597-1637
Romney . . . . .	British . . . . .	1734-1802
Rondinelli . . . . .	British . . . . .	1440-1500
Rosa, Salvator . . . . .	Italian, N. . . . .	1615-1673
Rosselli . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1439-1507
Rossetti . . . . .	British . . . . .	1828-1882
Rosso . . . . .	French . . . . .	16th cent.
Rottenhammer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1561-1623
Rousseau . . . . .	French . . . . .	1812-1867
Roybet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1840-
Rubens . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1577-1640
Ruysdael, J. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1630-1682
Ruysdael, S. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1600-1670
Sabbatini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1485-1550
St. Jan . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	c. 1475
Saintin . . . . .	French . . . . .	1829-1894
Salaino . . . . .	Italian, M. . . . .	1495-1515
Salviati . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1510-1563
Sanchez-Coello . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1513-1590
Santi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1435-1494



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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Sarto . . . . .	Italian, F. . . . .	1487-1531
Sassoferrato . . . . .	Italian, R. . . . .	1605-1685
Savoldo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1480-1548
Schadow . . . . .	German . . . . .	1789-1862
Schaffner . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1499-1535
Schalcken . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1643-1706
Schäufelin . . . . .	German . . . . .	1490-1540
Scheffer, Ary . . . . .	French . . . . .	1792-1858
Schiavoni . . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	1522-1582
Schidone . . . . .	Italian, Mod. . . . .	1560-1615
Schnorr von Karolsfeld . . . . .	German . . . . .	1794-1872
Schüch . . . . .	German . . . . .	1843-
Schwind . . . . .	German . . . . .	1804-1871
Scorel . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1495-1562
Segantini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1858-1899
Semitecolo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	fl. 1351-1400
Serapion . . . . .	Roman . . . . .	B. C.
Sesto . . . . .	Italian, M. . . . .	1480-1524
Sigalon . . . . .	French . . . . .	1788-1837
Signorelli . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1441-1523
Simonetti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	modern
Sisley . . . . .	French . . . . .	1830-1899
Snyders . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1579-1657
Sodoma . . . . .	Italian, S. . . . .	1477-1549
Solario, A. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1458-1515
Sopolis . . . . .	Roman . . . . .	B. C.
Spagno, Lo. . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1480-1530
Spagnoletto . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1589-1656
Spranger . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1546-1627
Squarcione . . . . .	Italian, P. . . . .	1394-1474
Starnina . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1354-1413
Steele . . . . .	British . . . . .	18th cent.
Steen . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1626-1679
Steenwyck . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1550-1604
Stevens . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1828-
Stott of Oldham . . . . .	British . . . . .	modern
Strigel . . . . .	German . . . . .	1461-1528
Stuart . . . . .	British American . . . . .	1755-1828
Stück . . . . .	German . . . . .	1863-
Swanenburch . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	17th cent.
Teniers, Sr. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1582-1649
Teniers, Jr. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1610-1694
Terburg . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1617-1681
Thaulow . . . . .	Scandinavian . . . . .	1847-
Thegerström . . . . .	Scandinavian . . . . .	modern
Theodorich of Prague . . . . .	German . . . . .	fl. 14th cent.
Theotocopuli . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1548-1625
Thoma . . . . .	German . . . . .	1839-
Tiepolo, G. B. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1696-1770
Tiepolo, G. D. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1726-1795
Timanthes . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 400 B. C.
Tintoretto . . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	1519-1594
Titian . . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	1477-1576
Tito . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	modern

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Torbido . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1486-1546
Toulmouche . . . . .	French . . . . .	1829-
Tristan . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1589-1640
Troyon . . . . .	French . . . . .	1810-1865
Tura . . . . .	Italian, Fer. . . . .	1420-1494
Turner, J. . . . .	British . . . . .	1775-1851
Ucello . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1397-1475
Udine, G. N. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1487-1564
Udine, P. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1465-1547
Uhde . . . . .	German . . . . .	1848-
Utrecht, A. von . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1599-1652
Uwins . . . . .	British . . . . .	1782-1857
Vaenius . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1558-1629
Van Beers . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	modern
Van der Helst . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1613-1670
Van Dyck (Sir A.) . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1599-1641
Van Dyck, P. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1683-1753
Van Huysum . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1682-1749
Van Leyden . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1494-1533
Van Loo, J. B. . . . .	French . . . . .	1684-1745
Van Marcke . . . . .	French . . . . .	1827-1890
Vargas . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1502-1568
Vasari . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1512-1574
Vautier . . . . .	Swiss-German . . . . .	1829-1898
Veit . . . . .	German . . . . .	1793-1877
Velasquez . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1599-1660
Velde, A. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1639-1672
Velde, Jr. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1633-1707
Velde, Sr. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1610-1693
Veneziano . . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	1490-1540
Venusti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1515-1585
Verboeckhoven . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1798-1881
Vereshtchagin . . . . .	Russian . . . . .	1842-1904
Verhagen . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1728-1811
Vernet, C. J. . . . .	French . . . . .	1714-1789
Vernet, Horace . . . . .	French . . . . .	1789-1863
Veronese, P. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1528-1588
Verrocchio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1435-1488
Vibert . . . . .	French . . . . .	1840-1902
Victours . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1620-1672
Vien . . . . .	French . . . . .	1716-1809
Villegas . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1848-
Vincent . . . . .	British . . . . .	1796-1831
Vinci (see Leonardo da) . . . . .	Italian, M. . . . .	1452-1519
Viti . . . . .	Italian, U. . . . .	1469-1523
Vivarini, A. . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	fl. c. 1470
Vivarini, B. . . . .	Italian, V. . . . .	fl. c. 1479
Vlioger . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1601-1660
Vollon . . . . .	French . . . . .	1833-1900
Volterra . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1509-1566
Vos, C. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1585-1651
Vos, M. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1531-1603
Vouët . . . . .	French . . . . .	1590-1649



# PAINTING

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Walker, F. . . . .	British . . . . .	1840-1875
Walton . . . . .	British . . . . .	modern
Wappers . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1803-1874
Watelet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1780-1866
Watteau . . . . .	French . . . . .	1684-1721
Watts . . . . .	British . . . . .	1818-
Wauters . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1846-
Weenix, J. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1640-1719
West . . . . .	British-American . . . . .	1738-1820
Wiertz . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1806-1865
Willkie (Sir) . . . . .	British . . . . .	1785-1841
Willems . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1823-
Wilson . . . . .	British . . . . .	1714-1782
Wohlgemuth . . . . .	German . . . . .	1434-1519
Wouwerman . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1619-1668
Wright of Derby . . . . .	British . . . . .	1734-1797
Würmse . . . . .	German . . . . .	fl. 14th cent.
Wynants . . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	1600-1677
Yon . . . . .	French . . . . .	modern
Zamacois . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1842-1871
Zegers, D. . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1590-1661
Zeitblom . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1518
Zeuxis . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	4th cent. B. C.
Ziem . . . . .	French . . . . .	1821-
Zoppo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1445-1498
Zorn . . . . .	Scandinavian . . . . .	1860-
Zuccherro, F. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1543-1609
Zuloaga . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	modern
Zurbaran . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1598-1662

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## XXXII

### SCULPTURE

**SCULPTURE**, like everything else in this world, is the result of evolution, and in order to view intelligently the best work of the present day it behooves us to know by what steps this art has reached its present stage of excellence.

The earliest remains of sculpture belong to prehistoric ages. Such is, for instance, the so-called statue of Niobe in Asia Minor. It is in this part of the world, also, that we find the oldest traces of the art of the Chaldean, Babylonian, Assyrian, Persian, Lydian, Phrygian, Hittite, and Phœnician nations. In fact sculpture is intimately interwoven with the history of the various nations whose artistic attainments it represents.

A certain amount of information concerning ancient sculpture can be obtained from the casts to be found in all art institutions, and from the reproductions given in books on that subject. The finest collections of original works are now in London, Paris, Munich, Berlin, Naples, and Rome, but there are still many fine examples—especially those too large to be removed—which can still be seen in Asia Minor and in the Tigris-Euphrates basin.

In Egypt, also, we can study the development of sculpture, the Great Sphinx at Gizeh being one of the earliest extant examples of Egyptian glyptic art. The statues in this country show the rise and decline of native art, which reached its highest point during the fourth, twelfth, and nineteenth dynasties. In the statues of Rameses, in the Memnon Colossi, in the treasures of the Boulak Museum, we can gain the clearest impression of what the Egyptians achieved in this line.

If we are studying the history of sculpture, we shall doubtless proceed from Egypt to Greece, tracing there the gradual progress from such works as the Mycenæ lions and the Archaic statues, to the perfection of the age of Phidias and Praxiteles. We learn that while Assyrian and Egyptian sculpture was used mainly to immortalise a king or ruler, that of republican Greece served to depict gods, goddesses, and heroes, and to illustrate the graceful myths which form the richest vein of Greek literature.

The treasures of Greece were scattered far and wide, first by the Roman conquest and then by the depredations of the successive vandals which have visited its shores and borne away, by fair means or foul, fragments of art spoil. Greek art — mainly represented by statues — was inspired by the beauty of the people, the mildness of the climate, and the abundance of excellent marble. Besides, the Greeks were pre-eminently an idealistic and out-of-doors people. Even their temples were partly open to the sky, and therefore statues were far better fitted for adornment of their buildings than painting, which is more susceptible to the effects of sun, wind, and rain, and of heat and cold.

In Italy the earliest glyptic traces are found in Etruscan tombs; then come the rather crude attempts of the Latin and Roman artists previous to the conquest of Greece, and the consequent influx of the finest statues the world has ever seen. Even if the Romans did not produce great sculptors, they seem to have had a keen appreciation for the works of the greatest artists, with which they decorated their forum, temples, public baths, dwellings, etc. The constant sight of all these art wonders evidently had an educational effect, for even before the Imperial Age begins, we have a series of notable portrait statues, the Romans employing the talent of their native artists to portray the illustrious members of their community, or to immortalise some battle or triumph of which they were duly proud. The Romans were realists, practical, hard-headed men; they wanted facts,

and it is those facts — and very interesting ones, too — which confront us now in the Roman department of museums in the statues of Cæsar, Cicero, Trajan, Hadrian, etc.

The Romans seem to have been the first to make extensive use of busts, for until their day the main examples of the sculptor's art were full-sized statues in the round, or in bas-relief (where the carving stands out only in part against a flat background). Statues and bas-reliefs of heroic and of miniature, as well as of life-size, are frequent in ancient art, but busts seem to have been one of the characteristic and economic features of Roman art, for it was doubtless far less costly to have a bust of some illustrious ancestor made than his full figure.

Early Christian art was purely a matter of religious symbolism, little attention being given to form. We find allegorical carvings on sarcophagi, and rude decorations also in the Catacombs. After early Christian art we have stiff Byzantine productions, and it is only in the thirteenth century that the revival of art begins. It is first apparent in the statues decorating famous cathedrals, such as those of Rheims, Chartres, Freiberg (Saxony), Wells in England, etc. The multiplication of cathedrals; the attempt to make each of them an illustrated Bible; the Gothic mode of architecture, which lent itself so gracefully to plastic ornamentation, — all served to encourage the production of statues.

In Italy, the revival of sculpture is connected with Niccola Pisano, — whose beautiful marble pulpits in the baptistery of his native town and in the Siena Cathedral still excite our wonder and admiration — and with Donatello. Ghiberti's doors are "epoch-making works of modern sculpture," Luca della Robbia's reliefs and altar-pieces are famous, and Leonardo da Vinci's sculptures are said to have borne their full share in developing the taste and talent which culminated in the marvellous work of Michael Angelo as exhibited by his "Moses," "David," "Captives," "Medici Tombs,"

"Pietà," etc. Benvenuto Cellini's and John of Bologna's immortal contributions in "Perseus" and "Mercury," Torregiano's "Tomb of Henry VII." in Westminster Abbey, Bernini's "Apollo and Daphne," are all famous examples of the art of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

Meantime art had found a fine field in France, where, under Valois and Bourbon patronage, Goujon, Pilon, and Puget decorated many of the castles in the Loire country, not to mention their contributions to the Louvre, the Tuileries, and Versailles. The works of these artists are best studied in the Louvre Museum, where a whole section is devoted to Renaissance Sculpture.

The Renaissance movement in Germany was very tardy, and German statues of the early part of this period are proverbially devoid of grace and lightness. But ere-long the Nürnberg school developed, progressing from the wood carvings of Stoss to the bronze Tomb of St. Sebaldus, and the statues of Maximilian's Tomb at Innsbrück by Vischer. But the Thirty Years' War swept away many traces of ancient German Art, and the Reform movement is also to blame for the annihilation of many of the works of sculpture in the Netherlands.

In the eighteenth century we have, in Thorwaldsen the Dane and in Canova the Italian, a revival of Greek art, and modern sculpture has followed in the steps that these artists trod.

In France modern sculpture is represented by Houdon, who made a statue of Washington; by Pradier, whose statues decorate the Opera House; by Rude, whose realistic groups on the Arch of Triumph every one admires; by Barye, the great interpreter of animal life; by Bartholdi, who designed our Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World, and by Rodin, who is considered the greatest living master of sculpture at the present date.

In England modern sculpture found its chief exponents in Flaxman, Chantrey, Stephens, Foley, Watts, and

Leighton, to mention only a few of the men who have done or are doing great work.

Germany, in modern sculpture, can point proudly to Danneker, whose *Ariadne* is one of the sights of Frankfurt, and to Rauch, whose mausoleum to Queen Louise of Prussia, at Charlottenburg, bears ample witness to his genius. Schwanthaler, Begas, Tilgner, etc. are keeping up a race for perfection in the glyptic art, which, by the way, forms one of the great attractions of the Munich Glyptothek.

In recent exhibitions both here and abroad sculptors have contributed many pretty genre subjects, some of which have been purchased by the principal museums of Europe, where they figure as examples of the art of the late nineteenth and the early twentieth centuries.

Although it seems as if the very materials of which statues are made almost precluded their utter destruction, it is only too true that many of the great works of art have perished. Marble statues have all too frequently been broken to bits and cast into limekilns merely to furnish a few cents' worth of lime, and bronze statues have been melted down and recast into cannon, etc. Such precious works as Phidias' *Jupiter Olympius*, which was made of ivory, gold, and precious stones, so excited cupidity that not a trace of it now remains.

An enumeration of all the distinguished sculptors and of the works which made them famous would be quite out of the question here. We therefore refer any would-be inquirer to the best books on the subject, adding a table for convenient reference in regard to names, dates, and nationality while pursuing these studies.

It is possible while travelling in Europe for people of even very limited means to obtain samples of wood carving, for instance; and in Italy the tourist will now find that some of the finest antique statues are reproduced by purely mechanical means. In fact, we have recently heard accounts of a wonderful machine which can carve at the same time some twenty statues, exact copies of the model over which a pointer is guided.



The statues of marble, bronze, or terra-cotta which you purchase abroad are securely packed by the dealers, and if you carefully keep the bill to exhibit to the custom-house officer when you land here, you are likely to pay less duty on the article than if United States officials appraise it.

## Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Abel, G. and P.	German	16th century	Bas-reliefs, Maximilian's Tomb	Innsbruck.
Adam, L.	French	1700-1759	Statues of Seine and Marne	St. Cloud.
Adam, N.	French	1705-1778	Monument to Queen of Poland	Nancy.
Agasias	Asia Minor	100 B. C.	Borghese Gladiator	Louvre.
Ageladas	Argos.	515 B. C.	Bronze Jupiters and Hercules.	Vatican.
Agesander.	Rhodes.		Laocöon Group	✓ Orvieto.
Agnolo	Italian	1462-1543	Statues, Facade, Orvieto Cathedral.	Rhannus. Corouaa.
Agoracritus	Greek	430-424 B. C.	Nemesis. Bronze figures	Pavia.
Agrate	Italian	16th cent.	Portrait heads, Certosa	Loreto.
Aimo	Italian	15th "	Reliefs in Casa Santa	Temple of Rhodes.
Akragus	Italian	4th "	Metal goblets with reliefs	Rome.
Albertus	Italian	13th "	Rapinatory Gates, Lateran	British Museum. Louvre.
Alcamenes	Greek	448-403 B. C.	Asclepius. Venus of Gardens.	Northampton. Geddingston.
Alexander of Abington	British	13th cent.	Milo Memorial crosses for Queen Eleanor	Waltham.
Algarði	Italian	1598-1654	Flight of Attila. Alhar, St. Peter's	Rome.
Alvarez, J.	Spanish.	1768-1827	Ganymede, Saragossa	Madrid.
Alvarez, M.	Spanish	1757-1797	Works	Madrid.
Amadeo	Italian	1447-1522	Colleon Monument	Bergamo.
Amberger	German	c. 1549	Statue of Clodwig. Maximilian Tomb	Innsbruck.
Ambrogio	Italian	14th cent.	Statue of Justice. Loggia dei Lanzi	Florence.
Ammanati	Italian	1511-1592	Monument in Eremitani. Fountain	Padua. Florence.
Amphicrates	Greek	c. 470 B. C.	Monument to Lezæna, Acropolis	Athens.
Androsithenes	Greek	c. 5th cent.	Statues, Apollo Temple	Delphi.
Angelon	Greek	6th cent.	Statue of Apollo	Delos.
Angelo di Siena	Italian	14th "	Facade, Cathedral.	Orvieto.
Anguier, F.	French	1604-1669	Monument to Duke de Rohan	Versailles.
Anguier, M.	French	1612-1715	Tomb of Richelieu. Rape of Proserpine	Sorbonne.
Anselmus	Italian	12th cent.	Bas-reliefs, Porta Romana	Milan.
Antelami	Italian	12th "	Descent from the Cross, Cathedral	Parma.

Antenor . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 6th cent. B. C.	Statues of Harmodius and Aristogiton . . . . .	Athens.
Antigonos . . . . .	Pergamus . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Attalus and Eumenes <i>vs.</i> Gauls . . . . .	Athens.
Antiochus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Statue of Pallas, Villa Ludovisi . . . . .	Rome.
Anxenor . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	6th cent. B. C.	Monument of Orkomeus . . . . .	Athens.
Apollonius of Athens . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Belvedere Tono . . . . .	Vatican.
Apollonius of Tralles . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Farnese Bull . . . . .	Naples.
Apollonius, stonemason . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Diana Reposing . . . . .	Naples.
Arca . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Monument. S. Giacomo Maggiore . . . . .	Hologna.
Arceilaus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	-1495 . . . . .	Venus Genetrix. Felicitas . . . . .	Rome.
Archelaus . . . . .	Asia Minor . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Apotheosis of Homer . . . . .	British Museum.
Arctino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Madonna. Misericordia . . . . .	Arezzo.
Aristeas . . . . .	Asia Minor . . . . .	c. 2d " . . . . .	Centaurus . . . . .	British Museum.
Aristocles . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 6th " . . . . .	Apollo . . . . .	Rome.
Aristodemus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 6th " . . . . .	Asop (?), Villa Albani . . . . .	Delphi.
Aristogiton . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Seven against Thebes . . . . .	Delphi.
Aristomedon . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 496 B. C. . . . .	Phocian Generals . . . . .	Delphi.
Ariston . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Silversmith . . . . .	
Aristonides . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Repentant Athanas . . . . .	Gmünd.
Arler, H. . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1351 . . . . .	Work in Church of Holy Cross . . . . .	Prague.
Arler, P. . . . .	German . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Statue of Wenceslaus, Cathedral . . . . .	Florence.
Arnolfo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	14th " . . . . .	Virgin in Bigallo . . . . .	Florence.
Arnolfo di Cambio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1332-1310 . . . . .	Sculptures, Santa Croce . . . . .	Vienna.
Aspasius . . . . .	Italian . . . . .		Minerva, Cabinet of Antiquaries . . . . .	Naples.
Athenion . . . . .	Italian . . . . .		Jupiter and Glanis, onyx . . . . .	Delos.
Athenis . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	6th cent. B. C. . . . .	Works. Pediment of Apollo Temple . . . . .	Rome.
Athenodorus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. . . . .	Laccoon Group . . . . .	Rome.
Aurelio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .		Statues, Casa Santa . . . . .	Loreto.
Auria . . . . .	Italian . . . . .		Altar, St. Agnello . . . . .	Naples.
Austin . . . . .	British . . . . .	c. 1465 . . . . .	Tomb of Richard Beauchamp . . . . .	Warwick.
Baccio Bigio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .		Statues of Seated Popes, S. M. sopra Minerva . . . . .	Rome.
Bacon . . . . .	British . . . . .	1740-1799 . . . . .	Monument to Earl of Chatham (Pitt) . . . . .	Westminster Abbey.
Baerze . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1391 . . . . .	Altars, Museum . . . . .	Dijon.
Bailey . . . . .	British . . . . .	1788-1867 . . . . .	Eve at the Fountain . . . . .	Bristol.
Baker . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1495 . . . . .	Monument of Mary of Burgundy . . . . .	Liebfrauenkirche.
Balduccio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Pulpit, S. Casciano . . . . .	Bruges.
Bambaja . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	16th " . . . . .	Portrait heads, Certosa . . . . .	Florence.
				Pavia.

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Banco . . . . .	Italian . . .	1374-1420 . .	Statue of Luke, Cathedral; Statues, Or San Michele	Florence.
Bandel . . . . .	German . . .	1800-1876 . .	Arminius . . . . .	Grotenberg.
Bandinelli . . . . .	Italian . . .	1488-1560 . .	Birth of the Virgin. Duomo reliefs . . . . .	Loreto. Florence. .
Bandini . . . . .	Italian . . .	16th cent. . .	Statue of Architecture on Michael Angelo's Tomb.	Florence.
Banks . . . . .	British . . .	1735-1805 . .	Achilles and Briseis . . . . .	London.
Bardi . . . . .	Italian . . .	c. 1512 . . . .	Reliefs, Chapel of S. Antonio . . . . .	Padua.
Barisanus . . . . .	Italian . . .	c. 1179 . . . .	Gates of Trani and Ravello Cathedrals . . . . .	Trani.
Bartholdi . . . . .	French . . .	1834- . . . .	Liberty Enlightening the World . . . . .	New York Harbour.
Bartolini . . . . .	Italian . . .	1777-1850 . .	Dimitroff Monument . . . . .	Florence.
Bartolommeo, M. di . . . . .	Italian . . .	c. 1446 . . . .	Bronze Gates, Sacristy . . . . .	Florence.
Bartolommeo, N. di . . . . .	Italian . . .	c. 1272 . . . .	Pulpit of Cathedral . . . . .	Ravello.
Barye . . . . .	French . . .	1795-1875 . .	Animals in bronze . . . . .	Louvre.
Basaggio . . . . .	Italian . . .	c. 1340 . . . .	Statues, Doge's Palace . . . . .	Venice.
Bastianini . . . . .	Italian . . .	-1868 . . . .	Benivieni Bust . . . . .	Louvre.
Bathycles . . . . .	Greek . . .	6th cent. B. C.	Throne for Apollo . . . . .	Amycla.
Beaumont . . . . .	Flemish . . .	c. 1529 . . . .	Chimney-piece . . . . .	Bruges.
Beauneveu . . . . .	Flemish . . .	15th cent. . .	Mausoleum of Charles V. . . . .	St. Denis.
Becerra . . . . .	Spanish . . .	1530-1570 . .	Madonna . . . . .	Madrid.
Begarelli . . . . .	Italian . . .	1498-1565 . .	Descent of the Cross . . . . .	Modena.
Begas . . . . .	German . . .	1831- . . . .	Schiller Monument . . . . .	Berlin.
Begones . . . . .	British . . .	1795-1870 . .	Dr. Babington. Lord Mansfield's children . . . . .	St. Paul's, London.
Bell . . . . .	British . . .	1791-1895 . .	Statues, House of Parliament . . . . .	London.
Benedictus . . . . .	Italian . . .	12th cent. . .	Ornaments, Baptistry . . . . .	Farma.
Bernardi . . . . .	Italian . . .	-1554 . . . .	Colonnade. Apollo and Daphne . . . . .	Rome.
Bernini . . . . .	Italian . . .	1598-1680 . .	Gates, Hildesheim . . . . .	Germany.
Bernward . . . . .	German . . .	c. 1015 . . . .	Reliefs, Cathedral. Monument . . . . .	Toledo.
Berruguete . . . . .	Spanish . . .	1480-1561 . .	Pulpits, San Lorenzo . . . . .	Florence.
Bertoldo . . . . .	Italian . . .	15th cent. . .	Monument, Pope Martin V . . . . .	Lateran, Rome.
Betto Bardi . . . . .	Italian . . .	c. 1431 . . . .		

Beychel	German	c. 1493	Choir stalls and altar	Isenheim.
Bidinus	Italian	12th cent.	Portal, San Salvatore.	Luca.
Bienaimé	Italian	1795-1878	Diana at the Bath	Florence.
Bignarelli	Italian	c. 1246	Ornaments, Baptistery	Pisa.
Birch	British	1832-1893	Portrait statue	St. Paul's, London.
Bird	British	1667-1731	Conversion of St. Paul	Berlin. Cologne.
Blaser	German	1813-1874	Group on Palace Bridge, Bridge Portal	Bruges.
Blondel	Flemish	1495-1562	Chimney-piece	Berlin.
Boëdas	Greek		Praying Boy	Bruges.
Boehm	Greek		Portrait statues	London.
Boethus	Greek	1834-1890	Boys	Capitoline, Rome.
Bologna, John of	Flemish	1524-1608	Flying Mercury, Uffizi	Florence.
Bon, B. and G.	Italian	15th cent.	Ornaments, Doge's Palace	Venice.
Bonannus	Italian	12th "	Leaning Tower of Pisa	Pisa.
Bontemps	French	c. 1552	Monument of Francis I and Claude	St. Denis.
Borgetrik	German	c. 1489	Altars	Vreden, Hemmerde.
Borromini	Italian	1599-1667	St. John Lateran	Rome.
Boselli	Italian	c. 1593	Bronze Figures, Maximilian's Tomb	Innsbrück.
Bosio	French	1769-1845	Reliefs on Colonne Vendôme	Paris.
Bouchardon	French	1698-1762	Cupid and Psyche. Bust of Clement XII	Louvre. Rome.
Boudin	French	c. 1611	Sufferings of Christ, Cathedral	Chartres.
Bourd			Marble sarcophagus, Warwick Church	Warwick.
Bouteiller	French	c. 1351	Choir Screen, Notre Dame	Paris.
Bramante	Italian	1444-1514	Terra cotta frieze in S. Maria delle Grazie.	Verona.
Bricolotus	Italian		Circular Window, S. Zeno	Pavia.
Brioschi	Italian	15th cent.	Madonna and Child, Certosa	Padua.
Briosco	Italian	1470-1532	David and Goliath, S. Antonio	Westminster Abbey.
Broker	British		Statues, Queen Anne of Bohemia Monument	Schleswig.
Brüggmann	German	c. 1480	Altar, Cathedral	Berlin.
Brügger	German	1815-1870	Statue of Glück	Florence.
Brunelleschi	Italian	1379-1446	Design for Baptistery Gates	Halicarnassus, Rhakotis.
Bryaxis	Greek	350 B.C.	Figures on Mausoleum, Pluto	Rome, Florence, etc.
Bronarotti, Michael	Italian	1475-1564	Moses, David, etc.	
Angelo				
Buono	Italian	c. 1443	Gates of Doge's Palace (Porta della Casta)	Venice.
Bupalus	Greek	6th B.C.	Works	Delos.
Bushnell	British	1640-1701	Kings, Temple Bar	London.
Busti	Italian	1480-1550	Certosa	Pavia.

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Butades . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	660 B. C. . . . .	Inventor of clay modelling . . . . .	Sicyon.
Byström . . . . .	Scandinavian . . . . .	1783-1848 . . . . .	Drunken Cupid. Dancing Female . . . . .	Stockholm.
Caccini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	450 B. C. . . . .	Tabernacle, S. Spirito. . . . .	Vatican (copy).
Calamis . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1536-1593 . . . . .	Apollo Belvedere; Race Horses for Chariot . . . . .	Loreto.
Calagni . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Portal of Casa Santa . . . . .	Venice.
Calendario . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Doge's Palace . . . . .	Vatican.
Calenus Canolinus . . . . .	Etruscan . . . . .	5th B. C. . . . .	Vase. Relief figures . . . . .	
Callistrates . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	5th B. C. . . . .	Goblets. Vases. . . . .	
Callimachus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	C. 480 B. C. . . . .	Corinthian Column. Dancing girls. . . . .	
Callon . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	13th cent. . . . .	Exuma Marbles. Glyptothek . . . . .	Munich.
Camaino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1232-1310 . . . . .	Cathedral of Siena. Ranieri Chapel . . . . .	Siena.
Cambio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1552-1623 . . . . .	Barrello, S. Croce, Palazzo Vecchio . . . . .	Florence.
Campagna . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1790-1858 . . . . .	Dead Christ, S. Giuliano . . . . .	Venice.
Campbell . . . . .	Scottish . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Mrs. Siddons as Lady Macbeth . . . . .	Westminster Abbey.
Campiglione, B. da . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	C. 500 B. C. . . . .	Apostles, Cathedral . . . . .	Pavia.
Canachus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1601-1607 . . . . .	Venus. Apollo. . . . .	Corinth. Thebes.
Cano, A. . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1757-1822 . . . . .	Wood sculptures . . . . .	Seville, Granada, Madrid.
Canova . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1827-1875 . . . . .	Theseus and Minotaur. Hebe. . . . .	Vienna. Berlin.
Carpeaux . . . . .	French . . . . .	1800-1867 . . . . .	Dancing, Opera House . . . . .	Paris.
Carrara, A. da . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1800-1867 . . . . .	Washing of feet, Certosa . . . . .	Pavia.
Cattaneo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1814-1894 . . . . .	St. Anthony . . . . .	Padua.
Cauer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1500-1571 . . . . .	Melanchthon, Cunderella . . . . .	Dresden.
Cavelier . . . . .	French . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Penelope, Truth . . . . .	Louvre.
Cellini, Benvenuto . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	14th cent. . . . .	Perseus and Medusa. Salt Cellar. . . . .	Florence. Vienna. Windsor.
Cellino di Nese . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	C. 370 B. C. . . . .	Cino di Sinibaldi, Professor . . . . .	Pistoja.
Cephradotus, Sr. . . . .	Greek . . . . .	C. 300 B. C. . . . .	Irene and Plutus. Glyptothek . . . . .	Munich.
Cephradotus, Jr. . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1781-1841 . . . . .	The Wrestlers. Symplegma . . . . .	Pergamus.
Chantrey . . . . .	British . . . . .	1833-1891 . . . . .	James Watt. Sleeping Children . . . . .	Westminster Abbey.
Chapu . . . . .	French . . . . .	3d cent. B. C. . . . .	Colossus of Rhodes (destroyed 201 B. C.) . . . . .	Paris.
Charles . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1763-1810 . . . . .	Cedipus, Peace. Napoleon . . . . .	Rhodes.
Chaudet . . . . .	French . . . . .			Louvre. Berlin.

Chiofoforo	Italian				Visconti Monument, Certosa	Pavia.
Christoph von Urach	German				St. Christopher, Font	Urach.
Gibber	Dane				Phoenix, Madness	St. Paul's.
Ciccione	Italian				Monuments of Joanna II and Ladislaus	S. Kensington.
Cimon	Italian				Dile-cutter, Coin of Arethusa	Carbonara.
Cioli	Italian				Statue of Sculpture. Tomb of M. Angelo	Sicily.
Cione, Sr.	Italian				Altar of silver. Opera del Duomo	Florence.
Cione, Jr., Orcagna	Italian				Works, Or San Michele	Florence.
Cudagni	Italian				Sigismundo Monument	Kimlin.
Civitali	Italian				Tomb of Pietro da Noceto (1472)	Lucca.
Clearchus	Italian				Jupiter, Crypt.	Rhegium.
Clementi, see Spani	Italian				Venus de' Medici	Parna. Reggio.
Cleomenes, Sr.	Greek				Germanicus, Louvre	Uffizi, Florence.
Cleomenes, Jr.	Greek				Woman bitten by a Serpent.	Paris.
Clesinger	French				Female Bac-	Paris.
					chanal.	
Cleves	French				Polyphemus on the Rock	Louvre.
Clussenbach, G. and M.	German				St. George, Equestrian Statue.	Prague.
Colins	Flemish				Reliefs, Maximilian's Tomb	Innsbruck.
Colombe	French				St. George and the Dragon	Louvre.
Colotes	Greek				Athena, Asclepius	Elys.
Como, Guido da	Italian				Reliefs on Pulpit, S. Bartolomeo	Pistoja.
Copin	Spanish				Alar, Cathedral	Toledo.
Coponius	Roman				Barbarians, Pompey's Theatre	Rome.
Corradini	Italian				Chastity, S. Maria della Pietà de'	Naples.
Cortona	Italian				Statues in Casino di Nobili	Siena.
Cortot	French				Statues, Chappelle, Expia-toire, Arc de l'Étoile	Paris.
Cosma	Italian				Monument, S. Maria sopra Minerva	Rome.
Cosmati family	Italian				Cloisters of San Paolo	Rome.
Courtet	French				Faun and Centaur	Paris.
Cousin, J.	French				Mon. Philip de Chabot, Statues, Louvre	Paris.
Coustou, G.	French				Horse-tamers, Marie Leczińska	Paris.
Coustou, N.	French				Seine et Marne, Louis XV.	Louvre.
Covarrubias	Spanish				Monument to Henry II, Cathedral	Toledo.
Coysevox	French				Monument to Mazzini, Statues.	Louvre.
Crescentino	Italian				Ranieri Chapel.	Siena.
Cresilas	Greek				Wounded Amazon, Pericles	Rome.
Cretias	Greek				Harmodius and Aristogiton	Munich.
						Naples (copies).

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Criton . . .	Roman . . .	B. C. . .	Caryatide, Villa Albani . . .	Rome.
Cure . . .	British . . .	1480-1530 . . .	Tomb of Mary Stuart . . .	Westminster Abbey.
Dædalus . . .	Greek . . .	B. C. . .	Bathing Venus. Temple of Apollo . . .	Rome. Cumae.
Daupus . . .	Greek . . .	B. C. . .	Athlete with scraping iron . . .	Rome.
Damer . . .	British . . .	1748-1848 . . .	Portrait busts. Nelson . . .	London.
Damophilus . . .	Greco-Roman . . .	c. 3d. cent. . .	Temple of Ceres, Statues . . .	Rome.
Damophon . . .	Sicily . . .	c. 4th cent. B. C. . .	Gods. Rest of Jupiter Olympius . . .	Olympia.
Dannecker . . .	German . . .	1758-1841 . . .	Artadine. Christ . . .	Frankfort.
Dantan, A. L. . .	French . . .	1798-1878 . . .	Admiral Duquesne . . .	Ratisbona.
Dantan, J. P. . .	French . . .	1800-1869 . . .	Boieldieu . . .	Dieppe.
Danti . . .	Italian . . .	1530-1576 . . .	Beheading of St. John, Baptistery . . .	Rome.
David of Angers . . .	French . . .	1789-1856 . . .	Pantheon Pediment; Philopomen, Louvre . . .	Florence.
Decius . . .	Roman . . .	B. C. . .	Bronze head, Capitol . . .	Paris.
Decker . . .	German . . .	C. 1446 . . .	Entombment, Aegidien Church. Hercules . . .	Rome.
Delvaux . . .	Flemish . . .	1695-1778 . . .	Statues, Cathedral . . .	Liège.
Demetrius . . .	Greek . . .	430 B. C. . .	General Pelliclus . . .	Ghent.
Demi . . .	Italian . . .	C. 1467 . . .	Monument, S. Giovanni e Paolo . . .	Corinth.
Dentone . . .	Italian . . .	1428-1464 . . .	Marsupini Tomb . . .	Venice.
Desiderio da Settignano . . .	Italian . . .	1640-1694 . . .	Hercules. Bronze reliefs of Louis XIV, statue . . .	Florence.
Desjardins . . .	Flemish . . .	C. 1513 . . .	Tomb of Frederick III . . .	Paris.
Dichter . . .	German . . .	27 B. C. . .	Silver cup with sleeping faun . . .	Vienna.
Diodorus . . .	Greek . . .	C. 660 B. C. . .	Caryatide of Pantheon . . .	Rome.
Diogenes . . .	Greek . . .	B. C. . .	Introduced sculpture in Italy. Cameo . . .	Rome.
Diopas . . .	Roman . . .	580 B. C. . .	Gem-cutter for Augustus . . .	Rome.
Diocurides . . .	Greek . . .	1386-1466 . . .	St. George, Or San Michele . . .	Argos.
Dipoenus of Crete . . .	Italian . . .	1835- . . .	Luther Monument, Wladis . . .	Florence.
Donatello . . .	German . . .	1692-1741 . . .	Persius and Andromeda, Fountain . . .	Worms.
Donndorf . . .	German . . .	Wood inlaid with gold, Treasure house . . .		Vienna.
Donner . . .	Greek . . .			Olympia.
Dontas . . .				



Dorycleidas	Greek			Wood inlaid with gold, Treasure house	Olympia.
Dowder	German			Altar	Augsburg.
Drake	German	1805-1882		William of Prussia. Warrior crowned	Cologne. Berlin.
Dupré	Italian	1877-1882		Gain and Abel. Cavour Monument	Florence, Turin.
Duquesnoy	French	1594-1646		St. Andrew. Fountain	St. Peter's, Rome.
Durand	French	1780-1873		Religion	Vincennes.
Dürer	German	1471-1528		Altar Shrine	Landauer Monastery.
Duret	French	1804-1865		Christ. La Madeleine. Fisherman, Luxembourg	Paris.
Echedonus	Greek			Statues from Miletus	British Museum.
Eckard	German	c. 1279		Font, Cathedral	Würzburg.
Ehrenfried	German	c. 1525		Hauts reliefs in Church	Annaberg.
Etex	French	1808-1888		Reliefs, Arc de l'Etoile	Paris.
Euclair	Greek	c. 660 B. C.		Introduced sculpture in Italy.	Syracuse.
Eucleidas				Gen-cutter. Coins, Diana and Pallas.	
Eugrammus	Greek	c. 600 B. C.		Introduced sculpture in Italy.	
Eunicus	Greek			Metal-worker.	
Euodius	Greek			Gen-cutter. Head of Julia, Library	Paris.
Euphranor	Greek	4th cent. B. C.		Theseus, Dionysos	Tivoli.
Euthyates	Roman			Equestrian statue of Justinian (destroyed)	Constantinople.
Eutyches	Greek	B. C.		Hercules, Alexander, Horsemens	Thespia.
Eutychedes	Greek			Gen-cutter. Minerva	Naples.
Fansaiga	Greek	B. C.		Antiochia, Vatican	Rome.
Fedi	Italian	1591-1678		Fountain of Medina	Naples.
Fenikorn	Italian			Rape of Polyxena, Loggia dei Lanzi	Florence.
	Austrian	1813-1878		St. George and Dragon, Archduke Charles, Prince Eugene	Vienna.
Ferrucci	Italian	1475-1526		Marble niche, Cathedral	Pistoja.
Fetto, G. di	Italian	14th cent.		Strength, Moderation, Loggia dei Lanzi	Florence.
Fiesole, A. da	Italian	c. 1403		Monuments to Salicetti. Facade Cathedral	Ferrara.
Fiesole, M. da	Italian	1400-1486		Monument to Guigni Badai. Tomb of Paul II	Florence.
Fiarete	Italian	1410-1470		Bronze gate, St. Peter's	Rome.
Finguerria	Italian	c. 1452		Inventor of copperplate engraving. Plates	Paris.
Fiore	Italian	1430-1500		Sau Domenico	Naples.
Fischer	German			Group. War of Deliverance, Belle Alliance	Belgium.
Flaxman	British	1755-1846		Lord Mansfield, Monuments to Lords Howe and Nelson	Westminster Abbey, St Paul's, London.
Florentin				Monument to Infant, Don Juan, St. Thomas	Avila.

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpieces	Location
Fogelberg . . . . .	Swedish	1786-1854 . . . . .	Paris, Mercury killing Argus, Odin . . . . .	Stockholm.
Foley . . . . .	British	1818-1874 . . . . .	Portrait, Statues, Houses of Parliament . . . . .	London.
Foyatier . . . . .	French	1793-1863 . . . . .	Spartacus, Tuileries . . . . .	Paris.
Fraccaroli . . . . .	Belgian	. . . . .	Achilles struck by the Arrow.	Brussels.
Franklin . . . . .	French	1548-1618 . . . . .	Captive Cupid, Statues, City Hall . . . . .	Paris.
Francavilla, Francheville	Italian	1439-1502.	Jeanne d' Arc, Faun, animal studies . . . . .	Paris.
Francesco . . . . .	French	1824- . . . . .	Statues in churches . . . . .	San Ildefonso. Paris.
Frémiet . . . . .	French	1673-1744 . . . . .	Queen Maria of Hungary, Monument in S. Maria Donna . . . . .	Regina.
Gallardus . . . . .	Italian	c. 1325 . . . . .	Bronze relief battle scenes . . . . .	Academy, Venice.
Gambello . . . . .	Italian	c. 1510 . . . . .	Monument of John III of Brabant . . . . .	Louvain.
Gardin . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1341 . . . . .	Jenny Lind, Allegorical statues . . . . .	Vienna, Weimar.
Gasser . . . . .	Austrian	1817-1868 . . . . .	Statues, Cathedral portal . . . . .	Spire.
Gasser von Valhorn . . . . .	Austrian	1816-1900 . . . . .	Rubens Monument . . . . .	Liège
Geels . . . . .	Flemish	1806-1893 . . . . .	Choir stalls, Cathedral . . . . .	Antwerp.
Geerts . . . . .	Flemish	-1855 . . . . .	Augustus Fountain . . . . .	Augsburg.
Gerhard . . . . .	German	c. 1593 . . . . .	Bronze basin, St. Egidien . . . . .	Lübeck.
Gherwiges . . . . .	German	c. 1454 . . . . .	Gates of Baptistry . . . . .	Florence.
Ghiberti . . . . .	Italian	1378-1455 . . . . .	Wood carvings - Venus . . . . .	Chatsworth.
Gibbons . . . . .	British	1648-1721 . . . . .	Queen Victoria . . . . .	Windor, London.
Gibson . . . . .	British	1790-1866 . . . . .	St. James, Cathedral . . . . .	Rome.
Giglio . . . . .	Italian	c. 1353 . . . . .	Campanile reliefs . . . . .	Pistoja.
Giovanni, P. di . . . . .	German	1276-1337 . . . . .	Statues, S. Portal Cathedral . . . . .	Florence.
Giovanni da Bologna . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1399 . . . . .	Flying Mercury, Uffizi . . . . .	Florence.
Giovanni da Pisa . . . . .	Italian	1324-1608 . . . . .	Altar, Eremitani . . . . .	Padua.
Girardon . . . . .	French	1240-1320 . . . . .	Richelieu, Rape of Proserpine . . . . .	Sorbonne.
Glabertus . . . . .	German	1630-1715 . . . . .	Padiment, Autun Cathedral . . . . .	Autun.
Gittades . . . . .	Greek	c. 1130 . . . . .	Shrine of Minerva . . . . .	Versailles.
		600 B. C. . . . .		

Glaucois of Chios	Italian	C. 630 B. C.	Invented bronze casting, iron soldering.	Chios.
Glycon . . . . .	Greek	5th cent. B. C.	Farnese Hercules	Naples.
Godl, B. and S.	German	C. 1329	Maximilian Monument	Innsbruck.
Gorgasus . . . . .	Greek	C. 493 B. C.	Temple of Ceres	Rome.
Goujon . . . . .	French	1530-1572	Fountain of Innocence. Diana the Huntress.	Paris.
Grado . . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	Louvre	Parma.
Groven . . . . .	German	C. 1455	Monuments to Steccata family	Lilbeck.
Grumons . . . . .	Italian	C. 1477	Font, St. Egidien	Pistoja.
Gruen . . . . .	German	C. 1469	Adoration of Kings, S. Andrea	Lilbeck.
Guccio, A. and O.	Italian	1461	Tavernacle, Marienkirche	Perugia.
Guffus . . . . .	Italian	14th cent.	S. Bernardino, terra cotta	Castiglione di Olona.
Guglielmo d' Aguello	Italian	1238-1312	Angela Church	Bologna. S. Michele Pisa.
Guidetto . . . . .	Italian	C. 1204	Tomb of San Domenico. Reliefs, Façade	Lucca.
Guillan . . . . .	French	1581-1658	Façade, Cathedral	Louvre. Paris.
Guillaume . . . . .	French	1581-1658	Bronze Statues of Louis XIV. Stone Captives	Louvre.
Guillaume, E.	French	1822-	Bronze Louis XIII	Paris.
Guvina . . . . .	Italian	C. 1284	Basis of Napoleon. Music, Opera House	Spalato.
Haagen . . . . .	German	C. 1584	Doors, Cathedral	Brussels.
Hack, Hier and Jak	German	C. 1584	Reliefs, Thier Monument	Aschaffenburg.
Hähnel . . . . .	German	1811-1891	Relief, Church	Dresden.
Hammerer . . . . .	German	C. 1486	Sculptures, Theatre	Strasbourg.
Hans von Köln	German	C. 1520	Pulpit, Cathedral	Salswedel.
Hayder . . . . .	German	C. 1470	Font, Marienkirche	Constance.
Hegas . . . . .	Greek	C. 1470	Door panels, Cathedral	Rome.
Hegestas . . . . .	Greek	5th cent.	Dioscori	Aegina.
Hegylus . . . . .	Greek	C. 480 B. C.	Temple statues	Olympia.
Heidel . . . . .	German	1810-1865	Hercules and Hesperides	Halle.
Heinrich, A.	German	C. 1351	Handel Statue, Edipus, etc.	Gmünd.
Heinrich der Baher	German	C. 1396	Apostles, Church of Holy Cross	Nürnberg.
Heinrich of Brunwick	German	C. 1435	Beautiful Fountain	Halle.
Hennequin . . . . .	Flemish	C. 1435	Font, St. Ulrich	Rouen.
Hering . . . . .	German	16th cent.	Monument, Cathedral	Bamberg.
Herlen . . . . .	German	C. 1522	Monument to Bishop	Rothenburg.
Hernandez	Spanish	C. 1467	High Altar, Jacobskirche	Valladolid.
Herophilus	Greek	1566-	Virgin, Altar	Vienna.
Hilger . . . . .	German	1560-	Crystal engraved	Freiberg.
Hilliard . . . . .	British	1547-1619	Monument. Bronze Portraits, Cathedral	Westminster Abbey.
			Tomb of Elizabeth	

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Houdon . . . . .	French	1741-1828	Statues: Voltaire, Molière, Washington	Paris, Washington.
Hueber . . . . .	German	c. 1474 . .	Monument of Casimir IV, Figures Cathedral	Cracow.
Isigonius or Isigonus . . . . .	Greek	c. 240 B. C.	Warriors of Attilus	Athens.
Jacopo d' Ognabene . . . . .	Italian	c. 1316 . .	Panel, Cathedral	Pistoia.
Jacopo della Quercia . . . . .	Italian	1374-1438	Fonte Gaia . . . . .	Siena.
Jakobi . . . . .	German	c. 1679 . .	Electoer Frederick III . . . . .	Königsberg.
Jenichau . . . . .	Danish	1816-1883	Panther Hunt . . . . .	Copenhagen.
John of Bologna . . . . .	Flemish	1530-1608	Flying Mercury, Uffizi Gallery	Florence.
John of Liège . . . . .	Flemish		Louvre Decorations . . . . .	Paris.
Jonherling . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1558 . .	Charles the Bold, Monument . . . . .	Bruges.
Jordan . . . . .	Spanish		Altarpieces . . . . .	Valladolid.
Joseph . . . . .	British	1800-1850	Sir D. Wilkie, National Gallery . . . . .	London.
Jouffroy . . . . .	French	1806-1880	Maiden imparting Secret to Venus . . . . .	Louvre, Paris.
Juan . . . . .	Spanish	c. 1500 . .	Altar, Cathedral	Toledo.
Juni . . . . .	Spanish	-1614 . .	Retablo, Nuestra Señora de la Antigua . . . . .	Valladolid.
Juste, Jean and Juste . . . . .	French	1477-1548	Monument to Louis XII and Anne of Brittany	St. Denis.
Kalide . . . . .	German	1861-1863	Boy with Swan. Female Bacchanal.	Magdeburg.
Kapuz . . . . .	German	c. 1595 . .	Altarpiece pulpit, Cathedral . . . . .	Worms.
Kietz . . . . .	German	19th cent.	Luther Monument . . . . .	Breslau.
Kiss . . . . .	Austrian	1802-1865	Frederick the Great. Amazon . . . . .	Berlin.
Knabl . . . . .	Austrian	1819-1881	Altar, Frauenkirche . . . . .	Munich.
Kopf . . . . .	German		Portraits . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Kraft . . . . .	German	1430-1507	Seven Stages. Cemetery of St. John	Nürnberg.
Krebs . . . . .	German	c. 1515 . .	Tablet, Georg von Stribar . . . . .	Munich.
Krumper . . . . .	German	c. 1612 . .	Bronze portals and statues, Residenz	Berne.
Künz . . . . .	Swiss		Sculptures, Portal, Cathedral . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Labenwolf, G. . . . .	German	c. 1583 . .	Neptune Fountain . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Labenwolf, P. . . . .	German	c. 1550 . .	Basin Town Hall. Peasant with Geese . . . . .	Innsbruck.
Laiminger . . . . .	German	16th cent.	Maximilian Monument . . . . .	Heidelberg.
Lamberger . . . . .	German	-1594 . .	Heidelberg Palace . . . . .	Heidelberg.
Lambeyring . . . . .	British	15th cent.	Warwick Chapel, Tomb . . . . .	Warwick.

Landini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1585 . . . . .	Fontana della Tartarughe . . . . .	Rome.
Lanfrani . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1343 . . . . .	Facade. San Francesco. Mon. Taddeo Populi . . . . .	Inola, Bologna.
Launitz . . . . .	German . . . . .	1797-1809 . . . . .	Decorations. Theatre . . . . .	Frankfort.
Legros, P. . . . .	French . . . . .	1656-1719 . . . . .	Religion. Church of Gesl. . . . .	Rome.
Lemaire . . . . .	French . . . . .	1793-1880 . . . . .	Last Judgment, Madeleine . . . . .	Paris.
Le Mot . . . . .	French . . . . .	1773-1827 . . . . .	Reliefs. Chamber of Deputies . . . . .	Paris.
Le Moyné, J. B. . . . .	French . . . . .	1704-1778 . . . . .	Portrait statues . . . . .	Paris.
Le Moyné, J. L. . . . .	French . . . . .	1605-1755 . . . . .		
Lendenstrauß . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1572 . . . . .	Four Virtues, Maximilian's Tomb . . . . .	Innsbruck.
Lenz . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1685 . . . . .	St. Ursula . . . . .	Cologne.
Leochares . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	4th cent. B. C. . . . .	Mausoleum, Halicarnassus . . . . .	British Museum.
Leonardo da Vinci . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1452-1509 . . . . .	Equestrian Statue of Sforza . . . . .	Milan.
Leopardo, A. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1450-1521 . . . . .	Doge Monument. (Andrea Vendramin) . . . . .	Venice.
Lerch, N. . . . .	Dutch . . . . .	c. 1467 . . . . .	Monument, Church Wiener Neustadt . . . . .	Vienna.
Le Sueur . . . . .	French . . . . .	1595-1652 . . . . .	Statues, St. John's College . . . . .	Oxford.
Löffler . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1549 . . . . .	Maximilian Statue, Clodwig . . . . .	Innsbruck.
Lokhorn . . . . .	. . . . .	15th cent. . . . .	Carving, Church of St. Michel . . . . .	Halle.
Lombardi, Alf. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1488-1537 . . . . .	Christ and Angels, Cathedral . . . . .	Ferrara.
Lombardo, Ant. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1510-1560 . . . . .	Doge Monument. (Pietro Mocenigo) . . . . .	Venice.
Lombardo, Giac. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1534-1560 . . . . .	Gates of Casa Santa . . . . .	Loreto.
Lombardo, Girol. . . . .	Italian . . . . .		Adoration of the Kings, Casa Santa . . . . .	Loreto.
Lombardo, Paolo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .		Gates of Casa Santa . . . . .	Loreto.
Lombardo, Pietro . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1476 . . . . .	Madonnas. Doge Monument . . . . .	Venice.
Lombardo, Tullio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1488 . . . . .	Doge Monument. (Pietro Mocenigo) . . . . .	Venice.
Lorenzetti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1473 . . . . .	Monument to Cardinal Fortiguerra . . . . .	Pistoja.
Lorenzetti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1490-1541 . . . . .	Elijah, S. Maria del Popolo, Tombs . . . . .	Rome.
Lorenzi, Batt. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	16th cent. . . . .	Michel Angelo Monument, Painting . . . . .	Florence.
Lorenzo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1395 . . . . .	S. E. Portal, Cathedral . . . . .	Florence.
Lorrain . . . . .	French . . . . .	1660-1743 . . . . .		Malta.
Lough . . . . .	British . . . . .	1806-1876 . . . . .	Marquis of Hastings . . . . .	Venice.
Louvonibus, C. de . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1455 . . . . .	Tomb of Philippus, St. Mark's . . . . .	Toulouse.
Lucas . . . . .	French . . . . .	1736-1813 . . . . .	Statues . . . . .	Halle.
Ludolf . . . . .	. . . . .	c. 1435 . . . . .	Font. Church of St. Ulrich . . . . .	Freising.
Luitprecht . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1150 . . . . .	Figures. Grotesques, Cathedral . . . . .	Olympia.
Lycius . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	420 B. C. . . . .	Achilles and Menon group . . . . .	Olympia.
Lysippus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	372-316 B. C. . . . .	Bronze figures. Esop. Labours of Hercules . . . . .	British Museum.
Lysistratus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .		Female Portrait Statue. Bronze Apollo Head . . . . .	Albert Memorial, London.
Macedonald . . . . .	British . . . . .	1798-1878 . . . . .	Ulysses and Dog. Europe . . . . .	

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Maddowell . . . . .	British	1799-1876	Virginus and Daughter.	Rome.
Maderno, C. . . . .	Italian	1556-1629	West Front, St. Peter's.	Rome.
Maderno, S. . . . .	Italian	1576-1636	Dead St. Cecilia . . . . .	Florence.
Majano, Ben. . . . .	Italian	1442-1498	Pulpit, Santa Croce . . . . .	Rome.
Majano, G. . . . .	Italian	1432-1491	Statues . . . . .	Rotens.
Maier, H. . . . .	German	c. 1421	Sculptures, Church . . . . .	Naples.
Malvito . . . . .	Italian	c. 1504	Crypt of Cathedral . . . . .	Naples.
Margaritone . . . . .	Italian	1236-1313	Monument of Pope Gregory X.	Arezzo.
Marni . . . . .	Italian	15th cent.	Veronica, Certosa . . . . .	Pavia.
Marochetti . . . . .	Italian	1805-1868	Richard Cœur de Lion . . . . .	Crystal Palace, London.
Marshall . . . . .	Scottish	1813-1894	Sir Robert Peel . . . . .	Manchester.
Martino, P. di . . . . .	Italian	c. 1443	Arch of Alfonso, Castel Nuovo	Naples.
Martos . . . . .	Russian	1760-1835	Bronze group of Patriots . . . . .	Moscow.
Masegne (Bros.) . . . . .	Italian	c. 1338	San Francesco, Altar . . . . .	Bologna.
Masson . . . . .	French	1745-1807	Portrait statues . . . . .	Naples.
Masuccio, Sr. . . . .	Italian	1230-1305	San Domenico . . . . .	Naples.
Masuccio, Jr. . . . .	Italian	1291-1388	Santa Chiara . . . . .	Naples.
Mazzoni . . . . .	Italian	c. 1518	Statues, Duomo . . . . .	Modena.
Mélas . . . . .	Greek	7th cent. B. C.	One of the first marble sculptors.	Villa Ludovisi.
Menelaus . . . . .	Italian	1st cent. B. C.	Group Nerope and Agypius . . . . .	Dijon.
Menueville, J. . . . .	French	1390	Carthusian Monuments . . . . .	Epheus.
Mentor . . . . .	Greek	4th cent.	Silversmith, Goblets, Diana Temple	Naples.
Merlano-Nola . . . . .	Italian	1488-1558	Tombs, Statues, Altars, Churches	Savoy.
Meyr, T. and K. . . . .	Swiss	c. 1504	Tombs at Brou . . . . .	Rome.
Michael Angelo . . . . .	Italian	1475-1564	Moses, Pieta, David . . . . .	Florence.
Michallon . . . . .	French	1751-1799	Bas-relief, Theatre Français . . . . .	Paris.
Michelozzo . . . . .	Italian	1391-1472	Statues, Riccardi Palace . . . . .	Florence.
Mikhiades . . . . .	Greek	6th cent. B. C.	Works . . . . .	Delos.
Minio . . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	Reliefs, Font, St. Mark's . . . . .	Venice.
Mnesarchus . . . . .	Greek		Gem-cutter . . . . .	
Mocchi . . . . .	Italian	1580-1646	Annunciation, Cathedral. Faruse Statues .	Orvieto. Piacenza.

Monaco	Italian			Gates, Castel Nuovo	Naples.
Monegro	Spanish			Monument to Henry II.	Toledo.
Montafes	Spanish		-1614	Conception, Cathedral	Seville.
Montelupo, B. da	Italian		1445-1535	St. John, Or San Michele	Florence.
Montelupo, R. da	Italian		1503-1570	Arch of St. Angelo, Monument of Julius II.	Rome.
Monti	Italian			Veiled Vestal Virgin.	
Montorsoli	Sicilian		1500-1563	Fountain, St. Cosmas, Medici Chapel.	Messina, Rome.
Morgenstern	German		C. 1431	Altar, Church	Adamsthal, Moravia.
Moer	German		1527	Altar at Tiefenbron Church	Tiefenbron.
Muechat	German		1835-1871	Monument of Maximilian, Bronze figures.	Innsbruck.
Munro	British			Fountain, Berkeley Square	London.
Mymecides	Greek			Silvernuth.	
Myron	Greek		500-440 B. C.	Discobolus.	
Mys	Greek		396 B. C.	Silvernuth. Apollo, Marsyas	Rome. Olympia.
Naucydes	Greek			Silvernuth. Shield of Pallas	Athens.
Neidhart	German.			Hebe, Argos, Hecate, Discobolus	(Copy) Vatican.
Nese, Cellino di	Italian			Guastavus Adolphus. Ornaments Town Hall	Sweden. Augsburg.
Nesiores	Italian		14th cent.	Baptistry	Pistoja.
Nicodemus	Greek		C. 476 B. C.	Harmodius and Aristogiton	Athens.
Nicolaus	Italian		1159	Pulpit, S. Maria del Lago	Moscufo.
Nicolaus	German		C. 1140	Statues on San Zeno	Modena.
Nicolaus	Greek			Statues on San Zeno	Rome.
Noble	British		1818-1876	Carvatiades. Villa Albani	London.
Nollekens	British			Sir John Franklin, Waterloo Place.	London.
Nossen	British		1737-1823	Medallion of Goldsmith, Westminster Abbey	London.
Novi, E. da	Italian		C. 1593	Monument, Elector Moritz	Freiberg.
			C. 1562	Fame and Victory. Monument of Galeazzo	Padua.
				Vicenza	
Oderisius	Italian		C. 1127	Portals of Cathedral	Troja.
Oechel	German		C. 1481	Portrait bust, Cathedral	Vienna.
Olotzaga	Spanish		C. 1548	Statues, Cathedral.	Huesca.
Onatas	Greek		490-460 B. C.	Egina Marbles, Glyptothek	Munich.
Orcagna	Italian		1300-1368	Tabernacle of Or San Michele	Florence.
Orleans, Maria of	French		1813-1840	Joan of Arc	Versailles.
Ortega, B. and D.	Spanish		C. 1497	Altar, Cathedral	Seville.
Ortiz	Spanish		C. 1489	Monument, Cathedral	Toledo.
Ottin	French			Laura	Luxembourg. Paris.
Ovius	Italian			Medusa, Kirscher Museum	Rome.
Pacher	German.		C. 1467	Altars	Griez, Botzen.
Paeonius	Greek		C. 430 B. C.	Statues, Temple Pediment. Nike	Olympia.

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Pajou . . . . .	French	1730-1809	Sculptures, Palais Royal	Paris.
Pamphilus . . . . .	Greek	. . . . .	Achilles (gem) Library	Paris.
Papias . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Centaur, Black Marble	Capitol.
Pasteles . . . . .	Greco Roman	72-48 B. C.	Worker to gold, ivory, etc.	
Pattras . . . . .	Flemish	1112 . . . . .	Font, St. Bartholomew	Liege.
Pelucia . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Reliefs, San Antonio	Padua.
Peter (Arler) . . . . .	German	. . . . .	St. Weneclaus. Cathedral	Prague.
Petrus of Lausanne . . . . .	Swiss	C. 1203 . . . . .	Bronze Gates, Baptistery, Lateran	Rome.
Petrus . . . . .	Italian	C. 1285 . . . . .	Tavernacle, S. Paolo Fuori	Rome.
Pheidon . . . . .	Greek	869 B. C.	Parthenon Frieze	British Museum.
Phidias . . . . .	Greek	480 B. C.	Statues, Houses of Parliament	Athena, London, Olympia.
Philip . . . . .	British	1827-1875	Passion, Cathedral	London.
Philip of Burgundy . . . . .	Netherlands	C. 1540 . . . . .	Redeemer, Cathedral	Burgoe.
Philippus . . . . .	. . . . .	C. 1213 . . . . .	Battles of Athalus and Emities	Ancona.
Phrynonachus . . . . .	Asia Minor	C. 239 B. C.	Faith, Hope, and Charity, Loggia dei Lanzi	Athens.
Piero, J. di . . . . .	Italian	C. 1389 . . . . .	Statues, Lectern, St. Mark's	Florence.
Pierpaolo . . . . .	Italian	C. 1394 . . . . .	Annunciation, Saints, etc. Cathedral	Venice.
Pietro . . . . .	German	C. 1386 . . . . .	Monument to Marshal Saxe. Bust	Pistoia.
Pigalle . . . . .	French	1714-1785	Pulpit, St. Stephen	Strasbourg. Louvre.
Pilgram . . . . .	German	C. 1512 . . . . .	Monument to Henry II. Graces	Vienna.
Pilon . . . . .	French	1515-1590	Bronze doors of Baptistery	Paris. Louvre.
Pisano, A. . . . .	Italian	1270-1349	Madonna del Fiore. Facade, Cathedral	Florence.
Pisano, G. . . . .	Italian	1240-1320	Pulpit of Siena. Pediment of Cathedral	Pisa, Orvieto.
Pisano, Nic. . . . .	Italian	1205-1278	Santa Maria della Spina. Santa Caterina	Siena, Lucca.
Pisano, Nin. . . . .	Italian	C. 1352 . . . . .	Maivesta. Madonna. St. Mark	Pisa.
Pisano, V. . . . .	Italian	1380-1455	Reliefs, S. Giovanni	Arezzo. Florence.
Plata, Della . . . . .	Spanish	C. 1514 . . . . .	Cista, Kirsch Museum	Carbonaro.
Plautius . . . . .	Roman	C. 250 B. C.	Crucifixion, Altar, Monuments to Popes Six-	Rome.
Pollajuolo, A. . . . .	Italian	1433-1498	tus IV, Innocent VIII	Florence. Rome.
Pollajuolo, P. . . . .	Italian	1429-1498	Font, San Giovanni	Siena.



Polycletus, Sr.	Greek	452-412 B. C.	Juno, Argos.	(Copy) Naples.
Polycletus, Jr.	Greek	2d cent. B. C.	Jupiter. Hermaphrodite	(Copies) Rome, Paris.
Polydorus	Greek	c. 80 B. C.	Laocöon Group, Vatican	Rome.
Pomponius	Roman	200 B. C.	Bronze Figure, Kirscher Museum	Rome.
Ponzio		C. 1535	Monument of Albert of Savoy. Monuments to Henry II, Francis I	Louvre. St. Denis.
Porta, Giac. della	Italian	1512-1577	Sibyls, Sistine Chapel	Rome.
Porta, Jugi. della	Italian	C. 1551	Monument of Paul III. St. Peter's	Rome.
Posidonius	Greek		Silver dishes, Temple	Ephesus.
Pradier	French	1792-1862	Niobe Group. Strasbourg, Place de la Concord	Luxembourg, Paris.
Praxias	Greek		Gable Group, Temple	Delphi.
Praxiteles	Greek	360 B. C.	Venus of Caudus, Glyptothek (copy)	Munich.
Prieur	French	1567	Anne de Montmorency	Louvre.
Puget	French	1622-1694	Milo of Crotona	Louvre.
Pygoteles	Greek		Portraits, Alexander.	
Pyromachus	Greek	C. 240 B. C.	Dying Gladiator.	Syracuse.
Pythagoras	Magna Grecia	5th cent. B. C.	Philoctetes. Apollo Citharæus	
Pytheas	Greek		Bowl, Rape of Palladium.	
Pythius	Greek	C. 353 B. C.	Figure of Mausolus	Halicarnassus.
Querirolo	Italian	18th cent.	Deluded Vice	Naples.
Quellinus	Flemish	1607-1668	Town Hall Sculptures	Amsterdam.
Quercius, della	Italian	1374-1448	Fountain. Tomb. Maria del Carretto	Siena. Lucca.
Radianus	Dalmatian	13th cent.	Portal, Cathedral of Trau	Dalmatia.
Raphael	Italian	1483-1520	Elijah, Jonah. S. M. del Popolo	Rome.
Rauch	German	1777-1857	Queen Louise. Frederick the Great	Charlottenburg. Berlin.
Ravy	French	C. 1350	Notre Dame. Christ with Mary Magdalene	Paris.
Reichel	German	C. 1607	Archangel St. Michael	Ulm.
Reitschel	German	1804-1861	Luther Monument	Worms.
Rhoecus	Greek	C. 680 B. C.	Statues, Temple of Artemis. Inventor of Casting (?)	Ephesus.
Richier	French	1500-1572	Entombment of Christ. Duke René	St. Michel. Bar le Duc.
Riemenschneider, J.	German	C. 1490	Christ in Prayer. Pleichacher Church	Würzburg.
Riemenschneider, T.	German	1460-1531	Adam and Eve, Liebfrauenkirche	Würzburg.
Rigfried	German	C. 1313	Reliquary. St. Patroclus of Soest, Museum	Berlin.
Riquinus	German	C. 1150	Königsberg Gate, St. Sophia. Gates, Cathedral	Novgorod.
Rizzo, A. and P.	Italian	1430-1497	Monument, Doge Foscari	Venice.
Robbia, Andrea della	Italian	1437-1528	Bas-reliefs, S. Maria Novella. Madonna	Florence.
Robbia, Gio. della	Italian	1469-1529	Birth of Christ, Monastery.	Arezzo.

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Robbia, Gir. della	Italian	1488-1506	Château de Madrid	Bois de Boulogne.
Robbia, Luca "	Italian	1400-1482	Altar S. Apostoli, Glazed floors, Vatican	Rome.
Robertus	Italian	1151	Pont, San Frediano	Lucca.
Rodari	Italian	1476	Busta, Caesar and Trajan	Certosa of Pavia.
Rodin	French	1840	Monument of the Heroic Burghers	Calais.
Roldan	Flemish	1746-1816	Sanson, Louvre	Paris.
Roldan, L.	Spanish	1664-1704	Entombment, Caridad	Seville.
Roldan, P.	Spanish	1624-1700	Choir, St. Stephens	Vienna.
Rollinger	German	c. 1484	Monuments, Caraffa, Cardinal Stefaneschi	Malta, S. M. Trastevere.
Romano	Italian	c. 1417	High Altar, Cathedral	Chur.
Rösch	German	c. 1499	Monument, Cardinal of Portugal, San Miniato	Florence.
Rossellino, A.	Italian	1427-1478	Monument, Leonardo Bruni, Santa Croce	Florence.
Rossellino, B.	Italian	1409-1464	Miniature Crucifixion. Statues San Petronio	Bologna.
Rossi, P. de	Italian	1490-1530	Hercules, Palazzo Vecchio	Florence.
Rossi, V. de	Italian	c. 1580	Monument to Lord Cornwallis, St. Paul's	London.
Rosso, V. de	British	1762-1839	Fountain	Perugia.
Rosso, Rubens	Italian	c. 1277	Monument to Mrs. Nightingale, Westminster Abbey	London.
Roubiliac	French	1695-1762	Monument of Cardinal d'Anboise, Cathedral	Rouen.
Ronland de Roos	French	c. 1500	Statues. Monument Henry II.	Fontainebleau. St. Denis.
Roussel	French	c. 1550	Reliefs, Uffizi	Florence.
Roverzano, B. da	Italian	15th cent.	Marshal Ney. Marzellaire, Arc de l'Etoile	Paris.
Rude	French	1784-1855	Bronze Tabernacle, Marienkirche	Lübeck.
Rugheese	German	c. 1479	Preaching of St. John the Baptist	Florence.
Rustici	French	1476-1550	Monuments, Westminster Abbey	London.
Ruybrack	Flemish	1693-1770	St. John, Death of Virgin, Cathedral	Strasbourg.
Sabina von Steinbach	German	c. 1200	Marble crater. Museum	Naples.
Salpion	Greek	1728-1800	Dead Christ, S. Maria della Pietà de' Sangri	Seville.
Sanmartino	Italian		Choir, Cathedral	Rome.
Sanchez-Nuño	Spanish		Monument, Adrian VI, S. Maria del Anima	
Sancee, Michelangelo	Italian	c. 1523		

Sangallo . . . . .	Italian	1445-1516	Casa Santa, Reliefs	Loreto.
Sanosvino, A. . . . .	Italian	1460-1539	Baptism of Christ, Virgin, and St. Anne, Relief	Florence, Rome, Coimbra.
Sanosvino, J. Tatti	Italian	1477-1570	Sculptures, St. Mark, St. James, Cathedral.	Venice, Florence.
Santa Croce . . . . .	Italian	1503-1537	Allar to San Antonius, Church, Montoliveto	Naples.
Sarrazin . . . . .	French	1588-1660	Bust: Pierre Séguier	Louvre.
Sartor . . . . .	German	c. 1510	Maximilian Monument, Bronze Statues	Innsbruck.
Scala del Duca . . . . .	Italian	c. 1582	Sarcophagus, Maximilian Monument	Innsbruck.
Schadow, J. G. . . . .	German	1764-1850	Quadriga on Brandenburger Gate, Blücher	Berlin, Rostock.
Schadow, J. R. . . . .	German	1786-1822	Achilles and Penthesilea	Berlin.
Scheemakers . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1517	Choir Stalls, Monastery	Herrenberg.
Schickhard . . . . .	German	1691-1770	Monuments, Shakespeare, Dryden	Westminster Abbey.
Schivelbein . . . . .	German	1817-1867	Prize on New Museum	Berlin.
Schilling . . . . .	German	1828-	Luther Monument, Night and Day, Brühl Terrace	Dresden.
Schlüter . . . . .	German	1664-1714	Great Elector, Arsenal ornaments	Berlin.
Schönhofer . . . . .	German	c. 1350	Fountain, Portico Frauenkirche	Nürnberg.
Schramm . . . . .	German	c. 1571	Madonna, St. Gregory	Freiburg, Munich.
Schüder . . . . .	German	c. 1469	Monument to Schultenberg	Wittenberg.
Schülein . . . . .	German	1802-1848	High Altar	Tiefenbron.
Scopas . . . . .	Greek	390-350 B. C.	Walhalla Pediment, Königshau Frieze	Munich.
Scyllas of Crete . . . . .	Greek	c. 560 B. C.	Mausoleum, Niobe and Children	British Museum.
Sebenico . . . . .	Italian	c. 1456	Statue of Arctonius	Sparta.
Sergell . . . . .	Swedish	1736-1813	Facade, San Francesco	Ancona.
Sergiovanni, L. di . . . . .	Italian	c. 1371	Cupid and Psyche, Museum	Stockholm.
Sessatschreiber . . . . .	German	c. 1516	Panel, History of Apostles, Cathedral	Pistoja.
Sesto . . . . .	Italian	c. 1500	Maximilian Monument	Innsbruck.
Sertignano, D. da . . . . .	Italian	1438-1464	Tabernacle, Certosa	Pavia.
Siciliano . . . . .	Italian	1666-1687	Monument of Carlo Marzupini, Madonna	Florence.
Siculi . . . . .	Italian	15th cent.	Certosa, Facade ornaments	Pavia.
Silanton . . . . .	Greek	c. 1493	Portraits, Jockass	Miraflores.
Siloe, G. de . . . . .	Spanish	c. 1493	Monuments, King John, etc., Monastery	Paris.
Simart . . . . .	French	c. 1490	Orestes, Arc de l'École	Burgos.
Simon von Köln . . . . .	German	c. 1490	Monument, Cathedral	Florence.
Simone (Talenti) . . . . .	Italian	14th cent.	Ornaments, Or. San Michele	
Simonis . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1400	Genre representations	
Sluter . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1400	Tomb of Philip of Burgundy	Dijon.

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Smilis	Greek	1470-1523	Hera, Horea	Samos.
Solari	Italian	1470-1523	Pieta, Certosa	Pavia.
Solon	Greek	1504-1584	Gem-cutter.	Paria.
Sosibius	Greek	1504-1584	Marble Vase, Louvre.	Reggio.
Spani-Clementi	Italian	1822-1866	Monument, Ugo Rangoni	Enger.
Spence	British	c. 1525	Hector and Andromache.	Bremen.
Stanvoer	Dutch	1228-1318.	Altar, Church	Padua.
Stefani	Italian	19th cent.	Madonna, Ansgarius, Mignon	Rome.
Steinhauser	German	16th "	Reliefs, St. Anthony	London.
Stella	Italian	c. 328 B. C.	Portraits, Lion Hunt.	Riduan Valley.
Stennis	Greek	1st cent. B. C.	Athlete, Villa Albani	London.
Stephanus	Greco-Roman	1817-1882	Angel of Resurrection.	Nürnberg.
Stephens	British	1817-1875	Monument to Duke of Wellington, St. Paul's	Athens.
Stevens	British	c. 1509	Altar, Church S. Magdalena	Winterthur.
Stöbert	German	1586-1667	Tomb of Spenser, Westminster Abbey.	Athens.
Stone	British	1438-1533	Salutation	Ulm.
Stoss	German	240 B. C.	Warriors of Attilus	Ulm.
Stratonius	Greek	c. 1501	Altar Church	Paris.
Strigeler	German	1491	Animals, Horses, Trojan Horse	Berlin.
Strongyilon	Greek	c. 1491	Slave blowing fire.	Naples.
Styppax	Greek	1469-1521	Choir Stalls, Cathedral	Delos.
Syrilin, J. Jr.	German	-1640	Singing Desk, Cathedral	Florence.
Tacca	Italian	1729-1788	Equestrian Statue of Henry IV., Louvre	Rome.
Tassart	Dutch	80 B. C.	Statues, Wilhelmsplatz	Miletus.
Tauriscus	Greek	6th cent.	Farnese Bull	
Tectaeus	Greek	c. 1399	Apollo	
Tedesco	German	c. 560 B. C.	Work, Cathedral	
Telecles	Greek	1786-1869	Statues, Temple of Artemia,	
Teneran	Italian	6th cent.	Tomb Pius VIII, St. Peter's	
Terpsicles	Greek		Statues, Temple	

Teudon . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	17th cent. . . . .	Faith Overcoming Idolatry, Church del Gesu Gen-cutler, Mosiac.	Rome.
Teukros . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	16th cent. . . . .	North Spire, Cathedral . . . . .	Chartres.
Texer . . . . .	French . . . . .	1804-1880 . . . . .	Statue of Hallam, St. Paul's . . . . .	London.
Theed . . . . .	British . . . . .	c. 550 B. C. . . . .	Hercules. Treasure House . . . . .	Olympia.
Theodes of Sparta . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	560 B. C. . . . .	Jupiter. . . . .	Megara.
Theocosmos . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1813-1862 . . . . .	Genus and Seals. Inventor of Bronze Casting (?) . . . . .	Samos.
Theodoros . . . . .	British . . . . .	1770-1844 . . . . .	Lady Godiva. . . . .	Coventry.
Thomas . . . . .	Danish . . . . .	1776-1851 . . . . .	Venus, Ganymede. Reliefs and Statues . . . . .	Copenhagen.
Thorwaldsen . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1844-1866 . . . . .	Asclepius Temple . . . . .	Epidaurus.
Thrasymedes . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 150 B. C. . . . .	Niobe Group, Theatre . . . . .	Berlin.
Tieck . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	350 B. C. . . . .	Triton and Naiad, Volksgarten . . . . .	Vienna.
Tilgner . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	c. 1272 . . . . .	Apollo, Portico of Octavia . . . . .	Rome.
Timarchides . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1472-1522 . . . . .	Portrait statues . . . . .	Pergamus (?).
Timarchus . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	1571 . . . . .	Mausoleum, Halicarnassus . . . . .	British Museum.
Timotheus . . . . .	British Italian . . . . .	1500-1556 . . . . .	Queen Eleanor, Westminster Abbey . . . . .	London.
Torell . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1508 . . . . .	Tomb of Henry VII, Westminster Abbey . . . . .	London.
Torrignano . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1510 . . . . .	Albert of Savoy . . . . .	Louvre.
Trebatti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1645-1732 . . . . .	Fountain, Spozalizio, Façade S. Petronio . . . . .	Fontainebleau.
Tribolo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1412-1480 . . . . .	Choir Stalls . . . . .	Amiens.
Trupin . . . . .	French . . . . .	c. 1488 . . . . .	Tabernacle, Certosa . . . . .	Pavia.
Vairono . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1823-1891 . . . . .	Polypheumus on the Rock, Louvre . . . . .	Paris.
Van Cleves . . . . .	French . . . . .	c. 1461 . . . . .	St. Peter, St. Paul, Risen Christ . . . . .	Florence.
Vecchiatta . . . . .	Swiss Italian . . . . .	1435-1488 . . . . .	Last Days of Napoleon . . . . .	Versailles.
Vela . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	15th-16th cent. . . . .	Bronze Reliefs. Screen S. Antonio . . . . .	Padua.
Vellano . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	13th cent. . . . .	David. Equestrian Statue, Colleoni, Bargello . . . . .	Florence.
Verrocchio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1452-1519 . . . . .	Monuments of John of Burgundy (the Fearless) . . . . .	Dijon.
Verta, J. de la . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	c. 1457 . . . . .	Northern Portal, Church . . . . .	Loreto.
Verzelli . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1490-1516 . . . . .	Designs for Statues, Book, Library . . . . .	Paris.
Villard de Honnecourt . . . . .	French . . . . .	c. 1530 . . . . .	Francesco Sforza, Equestrian Statue . . . . .	Milan.
Vinci, L. da . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1530-1554 . . . . .	Death of Ugolino. Relief, Vatican . . . . .	Florence, Rome.
Vinci, P. da . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1535-1605 . . . . .	Church of St. Sebald . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Vischer, E. . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1457 . . . . .	Church of St. Sebald. Font . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Vischer, H., Jr. . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1457 . . . . .	Church of St. Sebald. Tomb of Jn. Constant . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Vischer, J. . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1530 . . . . .	Tomb of Bishop Bibra. Virgin and Child . . . . .	Würzburg.
Vischer, P. & Sons . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1530 . . . . .	Tomb of St. Sebald . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Vittoria . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1535-1605 . . . . .	Monument, S. Zaccaria . . . . .	Venice.

Alphabetical List of Famous Sculptors and Sculptures — *continued*

Name of Sculptor	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Volcanius . . . . .	Roman .	1830- .	Jupiter and Quadrifida Capitol . . . . .	Rome.
Voss . . . . .	German .	1560-1627 .	Hebe and Eagle . . . . .	Cologne.
Vries, A. de . . . . .	German .	1777-1838 .	Fountain of Neptune . . . . .	Augsburg.
Wagner . . . . .	German .	1804-1847 .	Arch of Triumph, Decorations . . . . .	Munich.
Watson . . . . .	British .	1817- .	Lord Eldon . . . . .	Oxford.
Watts . . . . .	English .	1807-1877 .	Orpheus and Eurydice . . . . .	London.
Werne . . . . .	British .	-1411 .	Robert Southey, Westminster Abbey . . . . .	London.
Westmacott, R. . . . .	British .	1799-1872 .	Monument . . . . .	Dijon.
Westmacott, Sir R. . . . .	British .	1775-1856 .	Monument, Westminster Abbey . . . . .	London.
Wichmann . . . . .	British .	1788-1859 .	Goddess of Victory . . . . .	Canterbury.
Widmann . . . . .	German .	1812-1895 .	Goddess of Victory . . . . .	Berlin.
Wilhelm . . . . .	German .	c. 1140 .	Orlando di Lasso . . . . .	Munich.
Wigelmus . . . . .	German .	c. 1099 .	Statues, San Zeno . . . . .	Verona.
William of Ireland . . . . .	British .	13th cent. .	Ornaments, Cathedral . . . . .	Modena.
Wilton . . . . .	British .	1722-1803 .	Queen Eleanor Monuments . . . . .	England.
Witte, P. de . . . . .	Dutch .	1823-1893 .	Monument Gen. Wolfe, Westminster Abbey . . . . .	London.
Wittig . . . . .	German .	1814-1892 .	St. Michael . . . . .	Munich.
Wolff, A. . . . .	German .	1802-1879 .	Harar Group . . . . .	Düsseldorf.
Wolff, E. . . . .	German .	1816-1887 .	Minerva, Palace Bridge . . . . .	Berlin.
Wolff, W. . . . .	German .	9th cent. .	Judith, Psyche after Cupid's Flight . . . . .	Berlin.
Wolvinus . . . . .	Italian .	1825-1892 .	Animals, Tiergarten . . . . .	Berlin.
Woolner . . . . .	British .	1589 .	High Altar, St. Ambrogio . . . . .	Milan.
Wroedow . . . . .	German .	1778-1862 .	Portrait busts . . . . .	London.
Wurzelbauer . . . . .	British .	1795-1850 .	Warrior upborne by Victory. Ganymede . . . . .	Nürnberg.
Wyatt, M. . . . .	British .	14th cent. .	Fountain . . . . .	St. George's Chapel, Wind-
Wyatt, R. . . . .	British .	14th cent. .	Monument, Princess Charlotte . . . . .	Windsor Castle.
Xenophon . . . . .	Greek .	14th cent. .	Flora . . . . .	Megalopolis.
Zenodorus . . . . .	Roman .	14th cent. .	Enthroned Jupiter . . . . .	Rome.
Zopyrus . . . . .	Greek .	14th cent. .	Bronze Nero . . . . .	
Zotmann, H. and L. . . . .	German .	c. 1510 .	Silvermith . . . . .	
			Maximilian Monument . . . . .	Innsbruck.

## Elementary Reading

**Shedd, Famous Sculptors and Sculpture, or D'Anvers, Elementary History of Art: Sculpture.**

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## XXXIII

### ARCHITECTURE

It is only when beauty as well as utility comes into consideration that architecture ranks among the fine arts. While it is an intricate study, fitted to absorb the whole attention of a person during a lifetime, it is possible for even the amateur to learn enough about it to appreciate its gradual development and recognise some of the characteristic features which mark the various stages of its progress.

As in painting and sculpture, the earliest traces we have of this art belong to prehistoric times. The oldest civilization of our globe was along the banks of the Tigris and Euphrates, and of the Nile, where consequently we find the most ancient remains of architecture. The nature of the soil of the country and its products always determine its building materials ; so we find brick and stone used extensively throughout these regions, while in some other places nothing but wood was employed.

The oldest examples of Babylonian and Assyrian architecture are the remains of temples and palaces, such as the Tower Temple of Belus (Tower of Babel), and the palace of Sargon at Khorsabad. For thousands of years these remains of ancient art lay buried under great mounds of rubbish, whence they were excavated by the efforts of sundry noted archæologists. These removed to European museums all portable articles, leaving on the spot only the great ruins of the buildings themselves. In Babylon there are similar remains, as well as in the cities of Ur and Erech, which were also of great importance at one time.

The remains of Egyptian architecture are even more



numerous, and, owing to the dry Egyptian climate, even better preserved, than those of the Tigris-Euphrates valley. The oldest specimen is doubtless the step pyramid, which dates back to about 5000 B.C. The pyramids, however, are more massive than artistic, and hence may rank merely as buildings and not as architecture. The pyramid age was soon followed by that of the temples, such as that of the Sphinx, and about 2500 B.C. we find the first columnar temples, and the ornamented rock tombs which betray considerable artistic skill. After the destruction caused by the Hyksos invasion, there came a revival of art known as the Golden Age of Egypt, during which some of the most stupendous monuments, such as the Great Hall of Columns at Karnak, came into existence. The approaches to the Egyptian temples, the avenues of Sphinxes, the obelisks and huge portals, prepared the beholder for buildings where architecture, painting, and sculpture combined to produce the happiest results, as is demonstrated by the restored model of the Temple of Karnak, which can be seen in the Metropolitan Museum in New York.

Genuine Egyptian architecture was followed by a Greek-Egyptian style of the time of Alexander and the Ptolemies, supplanted in its turn by the Egypto-Roman, the Saracenic, and the Turkish modes of building.

The Persian architecture, of which we have such a beautiful example in the ruins at Persepolis, seems to have combined the Assyrian and Egyptian styles so as to produce the best effects. As for the Hittites, the remains at Boghaz-Koi testify to considerable ability, but the Phœnicians have left few or no traces of their constructions, for Tyre and Sidon were thoroughly destroyed. Besides, Phœnicians were bent on practical matters and gain, and therefore not likely to expend much time, talent, or wealth in cultivating "art for art's sake."

From Asia Minor — as is testified by remains of temples and tombs — architecture passed over into the islands and Greece, where archæologists are daily bring-

ing new treasures to light. Still, the oldest architecture in Greece is that of the Pelasgian or Cyclopean age, when ponderous stones were fitted together without the aid of cement or any adhesive mixture. The remains of this style of architecture belong to prehistoric times, and certainly existed before Hellenic architecture began. To Hellenic architecture belong the ruins of Troy (connected with Greek history, though on Asian soil), and those of Mycenæ which were brought to light already some time ago. More recent excavations have revealed in Crete the remains of the mythical Labyrinth, or Palace, of King Minos, and further investigations are now constantly being made, under the supervision of men trained to recognise, classify, and save everything which can throw light upon the past.

From the earliest vestiges of Greek architecture to its crowning glories, the Acropolis with the Parthenon at Athens, the temples of Ægina, Delphi, and of Diana at Ephesus, there is much to study in Greek architecture, for these buildings have never been surpassed, or even equalled. To Greek architecture we also owe three distinct styles of columns, known respectively as the Ionian, Doric, and Corinthian, most Greek buildings being surrounded by imposing rows of just such columns. Greek architecture reached its zenith under Phidias, who, in the Parthenon and elsewhere, combined architecture, sculpture, and painting so as to obtain the grandest results. But, as everywhere else until the fifteenth century, painting and sculpture were the accessories and handmaidens of the architect, who ruled paramount. In spite of its shattered condition, the Parthenon still shows the extreme beauty of its lines, and the sculptured ornaments which have been torn away and removed to the British Museum are the wonder and delight of artists. In the remains left on the Acropolis we can trace all the beauty of the original plan, and discover vestiges of the brilliant colours which once enlivened the carvings, if the model in the Metropolitan Museum has been rightly conceived.

The Age of Phidias (or Pericles) was followed by the Alexandrian period, after which the Romans came and bore away many Greek treasures to decorate their capital on the Tiber. When the Romans thus appropriated all they could carry away of Greek art, they also destroyed some of the famous buildings — such as the citadel and temples of Corinth — which later on they were going to try to reproduce in Rome.

Etruscan architecture is the oldest in Italy, where remains of ancient tombs give the measure of the art to which the people had attained at an early date. In Rome the great walls of Servius and the Cloaca Maxima are examples of Late Etruscan or of Early Roman architecture. Genuine Roman architecture, however, shows to best advantage, not in the temples, but in the amphitheatres, aqueducts, baths, triumphal arches, and palaces, many of which are still standing, while others are merely grand ruins before which we stand in speechless awe.

With the adoption of Christianity as the state religion, we see the dawn of Early Christian art; churches are now planned to contain worshippers, and not merely to serve as shrines where some deity sat enthroned. As brick walls and wooden ceilings made these buildings anything but permanent, there are only meagre remains of this style of architecture now to be seen.

Early Christian architecture was supplanted by the Byzantine style in the sixth century, when stone buildings with domes adorned with mosaics became the rule. The finest example of this style of architecture is St. Sophia at Constantinople, but there are Byzantine churches at Rome and Ravenna, which have never been put to any other use than that for which they were intended, and which therefore retain all their original character. The Byzantine mode of architecture was followed and superseded by the Mohammedan or Saracenic style, of which manifold traces are found throughout Western Asia, North Africa, Spain, Sicily, and Turkey, not to mention other places where its influence was felt and some of its beauties adopted.

The mosques and minarets are the most striking examples of Mohammedan architecture, where painting and sculpture also played a prominent part, although these arts were used only for conventional designs, as the Koran forbids any representation or imitation of human, animal, or vegetable forms. The Mosque of Cordova and the Alhambra are fine examples of this style of architecture in Spain, and belong to the Moorish school or branch of art. There are, besides, Egyptian, Syrian, Palestinian, and Persian schools of Mohammedan architecture, all of which show slight modifications of the prevailing style.

The Golden Age of Mohammedan architecture was in the tenth century, when some of the finest mosques were built, including the famous "Dome of the Rock" at Jerusalem. When the Turks became preponderant in the East, they effected the last change in Mohammedan architecture, which has varied but little since the conquest of Constantinople.

In Europe, meantime, the Romanesque period had begun, spreading from Germany to Italy, France, England, and Spain in turn, and assuming in each country a characteristic but slight variation. It was mostly used for churches, whose great crypts, deep porches, heavy towers, and rich façades still excite our wonder and admiration.

In the twelfth century the Romanesque style was gradually supplanted by the Gothic, "the perfect embodiment of vaulted constructive architecture, formed of three main elements: a ribbed groin vault receiving all superincumbent weight; piers, receiving their vertical thrust, and flying buttresses, receiving their diagonal thrust." The new style of architecture permitted and encouraged the introduction of large windows, which, although filled with stained glass, nevertheless admitted sufficient light to permit of elaborate interior decoration. The typical Gothic cathedrals are those of Paris, Rheims, Amiens, and Strasburg, although such a screen façade as that of the Cathedral of Peterborough is considered

merely an interesting variation of the prevailing type. Some churches, such as those of Sens and Noyon, show traces of the Romanesque style blended with the all-prevailing Gothic.

The Golden Age of Gothic architecture was in the thirteenth century. Examples of its triumphs can be seen in some of the above-mentioned cathedrals and in those of Chartres and of St. Denis. In France the Geometric style prevailed during the fourteenth century, and the Flamboyant reigned until the sixteenth.

In England we have Anglo-Saxon and Norman architecture in the Saxon and Norman historical periods: Early English corresponds to the thirteenth, Decorated to the fourteenth, and Perpendicular to the fifteenth and sixteenth century styles of architecture. Examples of these styles can be found in the English cathedrals, where you can sometimes trace examples of each style; so the buildings are not always perfectly harmonious constructions from the classic point of view.

In Italy the main Gothic cathedrals are those of Siena and Milan, but with Brunelleschi in the fifteenth century begins what is known as the Italian Renaissance style. This mode of building was also used by Alberti, Bramante, Sansovino, Michael Angelo, and Palladio, the builders of the Pitti Palace, St. Francesco at Rimini, St. Peter's, San Giorgio, etc.

Many of the palaces and civic buildings of Florence, Rome, Venice, Lombardy, and Genoa belong to this epoch and style. Although Early Renaissance decoration is exquisitely delicate, it gradually grew heavier, until at last it became quite ponderous. Italian Renaissance spread from Italy into France, and from thence all through Europe, blending with and then superseding entirely the Gothic style of architecture. But in each country it underwent some subtle change, the most artistic being in France, where the castles of Blois, Chambord, Ussé, the Louvre, the Tuileries, the Luxembourg, and Versailles show its various phases. In Germany it became finical and baroque, as is demonstrated by the

façade of the Castle of Heidelberg, while in England it assumed a still different guise, as is revealed by Whitehall, St. Paul's, and Blenheim, which all rank as Renaissance buildings.

Modern or nineteenth-century architecture is a blending or mixture of all styles, sometimes with most happy effects. The Arch of Triumph and the Madeleine in Paris are well-known examples of this style; so is the Cathedral of St. Isaac in St. Petersburg, St. Pancras in London, the Walhalla near Regensburg, the Hall of Fame at Munich, and the great theatre of Bordeaux, to quote only a few well-known examples.

As already stated, the architect was supreme arbiter until the fifteenth century, and sculpture and painting were subservient to and dependent upon him. Since then, while the three arts are still often used in combination, one has not been allowed to dictate or preponderate to the detriment or subjection of the others, and painting, sculpture, and architecture in their highest sense are now on a par and work together to compass the best ends. The following books will enable any one to learn enough about the vast subject of which they treat to gain some insight into the beauty and importance of the study of architecture; and the alphabetical list appended gives an idea of the illustrious men whose genius has been expressed in constructions which all the world can still admire.

## Alphabetical List of European Architects

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Abadie . . . . .	French	. . . . .	Sacré Cœur, Montmartre	Paris.
Abate . . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	Tomb of Francis I. . . . .	St. Denis, London.
Adam, J. . . . .	British	1730-1794	Portland Place . . . . .	London.
Adam, R. . . . .	British	1728-1792	Adelphi Terrace, College . . . . .	Edinburgh.
Adams, R. . . . .	British	16th cent.	Royal Buildings of Queen Elizabeth	England.
Ælfric . . . . .	Saxon	10th "	Malmesbury Abbey Church . . . . .	England.
Æthelric . . . . .	Byzantine	6th "	Chalcis Palace (Part) . . . . .	Constantinople.
Agamenon and Trophobius . . . . .	Greek	6th cent. B. C.	Temple of Apollo, Of Neptune . . . . .	Delphi. Mantinea.
Agapton . . . . .	Greek	5th "	Portico of Temple . . . . .	Elis.
Agnolo, B. . . . .	Italian	1402-1543	Campanile Santo Spirito, Palaces Bartolini and Salviato	Florence. Rome.
Agnolo, G. . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	Churches S. Giuseppe, Santa Maria Egiziaca	Rome.
Agostino da Siena . . . . .	Italian	14th "	N. and W. façades of Cathedral . . . . .	Siena.
Agricola . . . . .	Roman	6th "	Cathedral . . . . .	Châlons.
Agrippa . . . . .	British	63-12 B. C.	Pantheon. Butis . . . . .	Rome.
Albert . . . . .	Italian	8th cent.	Completed Cathedral . . . . .	York.
Alberti, A. . . . .	Italian	1405-1472	Bridge. Churches . . . . .	Hungary. Russia.
Alberti, L. . . . .	Italian	15th cent.	Churches of St. Francis, and of St. Andrew, Palazzo Malatesta	Assisi, Mantua, Rimini.
Alcock . . . . .	British	16th cent.	Sepulchral Chapel, Cathedral. University Church	Ely. Cambridge.
Aldhun . . . . .	British	10th cent.	First Cathedral . . . . .	Durham.
Aldrich . . . . .	British	17th "	Chapel of Trinity College, Church of All Saints	Oxford.
Aleotti . . . . .	Italian	17th cent.	Fortress. Palaces . . . . .	Ferrara, Mantua, Parma, Venice.
Alessi . . . . .	Italian	1500-1572	Escurial Palace. Palaces . . . . .	Madrid. Genoa.
Alexander of Lincoln . . . . .	British	12th cent.	Rebuilt Cathedral . . . . .	Lincoln.
Aligardi, A. . . . .	Italian	1592-1654	Buildings . . . . .	Rome.
Aloisius . . . . .	Italian	15th cent.	Rotunda . . . . .	Ravenna.

Alphabetical List of European Architects — *continued*

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Alonzo, G. . . . .	Spanish	16th cent.	Sanctuary . . . . .	Guadaloupe.
Alypius . . . . .	Antioch	4th "	Foundations for new temple . . . . .	Jerusalem.
Amati . . . . .	Italian	14th "	Facade of Cathedral . . . . .	Milan.
Ammanati . . . . .	Italian	1511-1592	Palazzo Pitti. Palazzo Rucellai . . . . .	Florence.
Andrea di Cione . . . . .	Italian	14th cent.	Ducal Palace . . . . .	Florence.
Andrea da Pisa . . . . .	Italian	14th cent.	Fortress Scarperia. San Giovanni. Palazzo Quattrone . . . . .	Mugello. Pistoja. Florence. Siena.
Andronicus . . . . .	Greek	4th cent. B. C.	Tower of the Winds . . . . .	Athens.
Angelo . . . . .	Italian	14th cent.	N. and W. Facades of Cathedral . . . . .	Siena.
Anthemius of Tralles . . . . .	Lydia	c. 538 . . . . .	St. Sophia . . . . .	Constantinople.
Antistates . . . . .	Greek	5th cent. B. C.	Temple of Jupiter . . . . .	Athens.
Antoine . . . . .	French	18th cent.	The Minus . . . . .	Paris, Berne.
Antoninus . . . . .	Roman	2d "	Pantheon. Baths of Esculapius . . . . .	Epidaurus.
Antonio . . . . .	Italian	c. 98 . . . . .	San Petronio . . . . .	Bologna.
Apollodorus . . . . .	Damascus	c. 98 . . . . .	Forum of Trajan. Bridge . . . . .	Rome. Danube.
Archer . . . . .	British	-1743 . . . . .	St. John's. St. Philip's . . . . .	Westminster. Birmingham.
Archias . . . . .	Greek	5th cent. B. C.	Temples, etc. . . . .	Syracuse.
Aristoteles of Bologna . . . . .	Italian	. . . . .	Church of Assumption . . . . .	Moscow.
Arnold . . . . .	German	. . . . .	Cathedral . . . . .	Cologne.
Arnolfo del Cambio, or di Lapo . . . . .	Italian	1232-1300 . . . . .	Part of Baptistery and of Palazzo Vecchio . . . . .	Florence.
Arnolfo Fiorentino . . . . .	Italian	14th cent.	Walls, Palazzo Vecchio. Part of Cathedral . . . . .	Florence.
Asheley . . . . .	British	16th "	Horsden House . . . . .	England.
Avitus . . . . .	French	6th "	Church, Madame du Port . . . . .	Clermont.
Ayclius . . . . .	Greek	5th " B. C.	Temple of Ionian Esculapius . . . . .	Asia Minor.
Baboccio . . . . .	Italian	1351-1415 . . . . .	Cathedral Design . . . . .	Florence.
Baldwin of Canterbury . . . . .	British	12th cent.	Churches . . . . .	Hackington, Lambeth.
Ballu . . . . .	French	1765-1846 . . . . .	Hôtel de Ville (old building) . . . . .	Paris.
Ballard . . . . .	French	1765-1846 . . . . .	Halles Centrales . . . . .	Paris.
Barry, Sir C. . . . .	British	1795-1860 . . . . .	Parliament Houses, Travellers' Club, Burlington House . . . . .	London.



Darry, E.	British	1830-1880	Temple Chambers.	London.
Kassevi.	British	1795-1845	Fitzwilliam Museum.	Cambridge.
Patrarchus.	Roman	1st cent. B. C.	Several Temples.	Rome.
Battista.	Spanish	c. 1503	Design for Escorial Palace.	Madrid.
Beauchamp	British	15th cent.	Design St. George's Chapel.	Windsor.
Hek.	British	14th "	Barnard Castle.	England.
Belcher.	British		Institute of Chartered Accountants.	London.
Bell.	British		Assize Court.	Birmingham.
Benci di Cione.	Italian		Loggia de' Lanzi.	Florence.
Benedetto da Majano.	Italian	1442-1497	Palazzo Strozzi.	Florence.
Bentley.	British		Convent, Manners Smith Road.	London.
Bergamasco or Castello.	Italian	1500-1570	Capella Emiliano. Palaces, Bridges, etc.	Murano, Venice.
Bernardo di Lorenzo.	Italian		Palazzo Piccolomini.	Siena.
Bernini.	Italian	c. 1436	Plans of Orfoso. Sta. Maria del Carmine.	Pavia. Milan.
Berruguete.	Spanish	1589-1680	Gate, San Martino and Alcalá. Town Hall.	Rome.
Bertram of Salisbury.	British	1480-1561	Cathedral.	Toledo. Seville.
Bianchi.	British	12th cent.	San Francesco di Paolo.	Salisbury.
Bibiena.	Italian	1700-1774	Theatres.	Naples.
Biscopus.	British	8th cent.	Conventual Church.	Verona. Vienna.
Blomfield.	British		Sion College, Thames Embankment.	Wearmouth.
Blond.	French	17th cent.	Hotel Vendôme. Works.	London.
Blondel.	French	1617-1686	Porte St. Denis. Porte St. Antoine.	Paris. Russia.
Bodley and Garner.	British		School Board Offices. Church.	London.
Boffy.	British		Church at Gerona.	Folkestone.
Boffrand.	French	18th cent.	Works.	Spain.
Bolton.	British	16th "	Design Henry VII's Chapel.	Paris. Germany.
Bonnans.	Italian	12th "	Leaning Tower.	Westminster.
Bonneuil.	French	c. 1278	Cathedral.	Pisa.
Bonomi.	Italian	1739-1808	Rosenath, Riddellstone alterations.	Uppsala.
Borset.	Flemish	1599-1667	Hôtel de Luyens. Hôtel Laigle. St. Agnese.	England. Rome.
Bouchardon.	French	1698-1762	Archiepiscopal Palace.	France. Liège.
Boyden.	British	14th cent.	Fountain of Grenelle.	Paris.
Bramante.	Italian	1444-1514	Virgin Chapel. St. Alban's.	England.
Bramantino.	Italian	15th cent.	Belvedere Court of Vatican. St. Peter's.	Rome.
Bray.	British	-1503	San Saffiro.	Milan.
Lregno.	Italian		Henry VII's Chapel, St. George's Chapel.	Westminster, Windsor.
			San Zaccaria.	Venice.

Alphabetical List of European Architects — *continued*

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Brettingham	British	18th cent.	Holkham Hall	England.
Brigwythe	British	c. 1219	Church	Vercellae.
Brioco	Italian	1470-1532	Loggia and Council House	Padua.
Britton	British	1771-1857	Cathedral Antiquities	England.
Brongniart	French		Bourse	Paris.
Brooks	British		Churches, Kensington, Gospel Oak, etc.	England.
Brosse	French	16th cent.	Luxembourg	Paris.
Bruand	French	1670	Facade of Invalides	Paris.
Brunelleschi	Italian	1379-1416	Cupola of Cathedral, Palazzo Pitti	Florence.
Brydon	British		Chelsea Town Hall	Chelsea.
Bullant	French	1540	Château of Ecouen, Louvre	Ecouen.
Buon	Italian	15th cent.	San Zaccaria, Facade of Doge's Palace	Venice.
Buono	Italian	16th "	Church S. Rocco, Campanile	Venice.
Buono of V.	Italian	12th "	Tower of St. Mark's	Venice.
Buontalenti	Italian	1536-1608	Olympic Theatre, Il Redentore	Vicenza.
Burns	British	1828-1881	Cork Cathedral, Restores Cardiff Castle.	Venice.
Burns	British		Duke of Buccleugh's House, Whitehall	Great Britain.
Burroughs	British	18th cent.	Senate House	London.
Burton	British	1800-1881	Athenaeum Club	London.
Buschetto	Italian	c. 1016-	Cathedral of Pisa	Pisa.
Bustamante	Spanish	16th cent.	Hospital, St. John the Baptist	Toledo.
Butterfield	British		Keble College, All Saints	Oxford.
Caius	Roman	5th cent. B.C.	Temple of Honor and Virtue	Rome.
Callicrates	Greek	5th " B.C.	Temples	Rhodes.
Callimachus	Greek	5th "	Assisted Parthenon, 440 B. C.	Athens.
Campbell	British	396 B. C.	Inventor of Corinthian order	Cornith.
Campello	Italian	-1734	Wanstead House	Mereworth.
Campero	Spanish		St. Francis Church	Assisi.
Campione	Italian	16th cent.	Church and Convent of St. Francis	Fondelagnua.
Caprarola	Italian	14th "	Milan Cathedral	Milan.
			Madonna della Consolazione	Todi.

Caprino	Italian	11th cent.	Palazzo de Venezia	Rome.
Carilepho	British	1st	Cathedral	Durham.
Celer	Roman	16th cent.	Golden House	Rome.
Cerceau	French	1739-1811	Pont Neuf, Hôtel Sully, Gallery of Tuileries	Paris.
Chalgrin	French	1726-1796	Arc de Triomphe de l'Étoile	Paris.
Chambers	British	c. 1539	Somerset House	London.
Chambiges	French	1362-1443	Louvre, Château de St. Germain	Paris.
Chichele	British	5th cent.	All Souls' College, Parts of Lambeth Palace.	Oxford.
Chirosophus	Greek	17th "	Croydon Church	Croydon.
Christmas	British	15th "	Temples of Ceres, of Venus, of Apollo	Tegea.
Christobolo	Italian	6th cent.	Design for Aldersgate	London.
Chryses	Persian	c. 1655	Mosque and School	Constantinople.
Churriguera	Spanish	c. 1415	Hydraulic Architecture.	
Ciccione, A.	Italian	1240-1302	El Pilar, Baroque Style Buildings	Spain.
Cimabue	Italian	1435-1501	Convent and Church, Mt. Oliveto.	Naples.
Civitate	Italian	4th cent.	Decorations.	Assisi.
Cleomenes	Greek	15th "	Cathedral, Noceto Tomb.	Lucca.
Close	British	16th "	Plan of Alexandria	Egypt.
Cobarrubias	Spanish	1st	King's College Chapel	Cambridge.
Coccibus	Roman	1788-1863	Alcazar Façade	Toledo.
Cockerell	British	16th cent.	Grottoes of Fuzznoli and Cumca	Near Naples.
Cole	British	15th cent.	Taylor Buildings, Hanover Church	Oxford.
Colcutt	British	16th "	South Spire, Cathedral	Lincoln.
Colombe	French	15th cent.	The Imperial Institute, Opera House	London.
Contucci	Italian	1595-1669	Tomb of Children of Charles VIII, Cathedral	Tours.
Cortona	Italian	175 B. C.	Chapel de Sacramento in Santo Spirito.	Loreto, Venice, Portugal.
Cosutius	Roman	1656-1735	Buildings	
Cotte	French	14th cent.	Old Hôtel de Ville	Paris.
Courcy	French	12th "	Designs Temple Jupiter Olympius	Olympia.
Cozzo	Italian	1457-1508	New Buildings	St. Denis.
Cronaca or Pollaiuolo	Italian	5th cent.	Rebuilt Cathedral	Rheims.
Crosland	British	1st	Great Hall	Padua.
Cryades	Roman	1700-1768	Façade Palazzo Strozzi	Florence.
Cyrus	Roman	1740-1825	Holloway College	Egham.
Dance, G., Sr.	British		Church and Bridge	Rome.
Dance, G., Jr.	British		Architect to Cicero.	
			Mansion House	London.
			Newgate, St. Luke's Hospital	London.

Alphabetical List of European Architects — *continued*

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Davis and Emmanuel	British	.	City Schools . . . . .	London.
Deane . . . . .	British	.	Oxford Museum . . . . .	London.
De Brosse . . . . .	French	c. 1611	Luxembourg Palace . . . . .	Paris.
De Fabris . . . . .	Italian	c. 1887	Facade of Duomo . . . . .	Florence.
De Key . . . . .	Flemish	.	Town Hall . . . . .	Leyden.
De Keyser . . . . .	Flemish	.	Bourse, Hansa House . . . . .	Amsterdam.
Della Robbia, G. . . . .	Italian	—1566	Château de Madrid. Bois de Boulogne . . . . .	Paris.
Della Porta or Barro- lommeo . . . . .	Italian	1475-1517	Loggia, Farnese Palace. Two small domes, St. Peter's . . . . .	Rome.
De Lorme . . . . .	French	1515-1570	Tuileries . . . . .	Paris.
Demetrius . . . . .	Ephesian	6th cent. B. C.	Temple of Diana . . . . .	Ephesus.
Dépérthes . . . . .	French	.	Hôtel de Ville . . . . .	Paris.
Derrand . . . . .	French	c. 1727	Churches, St. Paul, St. Louis . . . . .	Paris.
Desiderio . . . . .	Italian	1428-1464	Marsupini Tomb, Santa Croce . . . . .	Florence.
De Tessin . . . . .	Roman	2d cent.	Royal Palace . . . . .	Stockholm.
Detrianus . . . . .	Roman	.	Mole of Hadrian, Ponte San Angelo . . . . .	Rome.
De Vrient . . . . .	Flemish	c. 1529	Hôtel de Ville . . . . .	Antwerp.
Diego de Siloe . . . . .	Spanish	4th cent. B. C.	Cathedral . . . . .	Granada.
Dinocrates . . . . .	Greek	1581-1641	Works . . . . .	Egypt.
Doménichino . . . . .	Italian	1386-1466	Monuments . . . . .	Italy.
Donatello . . . . .	Italian	1358-1380	Palazzo Larderel . . . . .	Florence, Naples.
Dostio . . . . .	British	15th cent.	Churches . . . . .	Florence.
Douglas and Fordham	French	1797-1870	All Souls' College . . . . .	Chester.
Druell . . . . .	French	1802-1879	Library, Ecole des Beaux Arts . . . . .	Oxford.
Duban . . . . .	French	c. 1544-1614	Palais de Justice, Colonne de Juillet . . . . .	Paris.
Duc . . . . .	French	924-988	Extension of Louvre along the Seine . . . . .	Paris.
Du Cerceau Bros. . . . .	British	18th cent.	Cell at Glastonbury . . . . .	England.
Dunstan . . . . .	British	.	Chiswick House, Burlington House, Picca- dilly . . . . .	London.
Earl of Burlington . . . . .	British	8th cent.	York Cathedral . . . . .	York.

Echelles, d'	French	13th cent.	Portico Notre Dame	Paris.
Edington.	British	-1394	Cathedral	Winchester.
Edis	British		Constitutional Club	London.
Ednoth	British		Church, etc., of Rumsey Abbey	Great Britain.
Egaz	Spanish	10th cent.	Hospital of Santa Cruz	Toledo.
Egbert	British	8th cent.	Rebuilt Cathedral	York.
Elmes	British	1782-1862	St. George's Hall	Liverpool.
Elphage	British	10th cent.	Crypt of Cathedral	Winchester.
Emere	Spanish	16th "	Parochial Church	Valeria, Spain.
Erlach, von	German	18th "	Churches and Palaces	Germany.
Ernest	British		Collingham Gardens	England.
Ernulf	British	1040-1124	Cathedral work finished	Rochester.
Erwin von Steinbach.		fl. 13 18	Cathedral Tower and façade	Strasbourg.
<i>See Steinbach</i>				
Escobedo	Spanish	16th cent.	Aqueduct	Segovia.
Etienne	French	13th "	Church of Trinity	Upsala, Sweden.
Eudo de Montreuil	French	-1289	Church. Hôtel Dieu	Paris.
Eupalius	Greek	6th cent. B.C.	Aqueduct	Samos.
Eupolemus	Greek	4th "	Several temples	Argos.
Eustachius of Ely	British	13th "	Galleries, Cathedral	Ely.
Eversden	British	14th "	St. Stephen's Chapel	Westminster.
Eversolt	British	12th "	St. Alban's Abbey	England.
Ezguerra	Spanish	16th "	Cathedral	Plasencia, Spain.
Fain	French	1497-1509	Château de Gaillon	France.
Falconnetto	Italian	1458-1534	Church della Madonna delle Grazie	Padua.
Fansaga	Italian	1591-1678		
Farleigh	British	15th cent.	Lady Chapel	Gloucester.
Federighi	Italian	1420-1490	Loggia del Papa	Florence.
Fenante Maglione	Italian	13th cent.	Cathedral and Church of San Lorenzo	Naples.
Ferrey	British	1828-1883	St. Stephen's	Westminster.
Ferstel	Austrian	1410-1470	Votive Church	Vienna.
Filarete	Italian	15th cent.	Ospedale Maggiore	Milan.
Floravanti	Italian	16th "	Hanging tower. Churches	Creto. Moscow.
Fiorenino	Italian	1656-1723	Santa Caterina	Naples.
Fischer	Austrian	12th cent.	Schoenbrunn, Karlskirche	Vienna.
Fitz Odo	British	16th "	Master of the Works	Westminster.
Foix	French		Escorial Monastery	Spain.
Fontaine	French	1762-1853	Arc de Triomphe du Carrousel	Paris.

Alphabetical List of European Architects — *continued*

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Fontana, C.	Italian	1634-1714	Chapel of Manger, Santa Maria Maggiore	Rome.
Fontana, D.	Italian	1543-1609	Rome St. Peter's, Library	Rome. Vatican.
Forment	Italian	16th cent.	Facade, S. Euphrasia	Saragossa.
Formige	British	1845-	Liberal Arts building, Exposition	Paris.
Fowke	British	1823-1865	South Kensington Museum	London.
Fra Giacomo	Italian	1435-1515	Palazzo del Consiglio	Verona.
Francesco	Italian	1439-1502		
Fra Ristoro	Italian		Santa Maria Novella.	Rome.
Fra Sisto	Italian		Aqueducts	Rome.
Frontinus	Roman	c. 103	Monastery cloisters	Gloucester.
Frowcester	British	15th cent.	Santa Maria sul Arno, Castello del Uovo	Florence, Naples.
Fuccio	Italian	13th "	Palazzo Corsini, Exterior S. Maria Maggiore	Rome.
Fuga	Italian	1699-1784	Buildings	Rome.
Fussitius	Roman	1st cent. B. C.		Bordeaux, Rennes, Paris.
Gabriel	French	18th cent.	Buildings	Paris.
Gabriel, J. A.	French	18th "	Ecole Militaire	
Gaddi, T.	Italian	1300-1366	Finished Campanile	
Gadyer		c. 1527	Château de Madrid (destroyed)	
Gainsborough	British	14th cent.	Lincoln Cathedral	Florence.
Ganza	Spanish	16th "	Royal Chapel	near Paris.
Galliei	Italian	1691-1737	Corsini Chapel, E. Front St. John Lateran	Seville.
Garniel	Spanish	16th cent.	College of Alcalá	Rome.
Gandon	British	1742-1823	Custom House, Exchange, Four Courts	Dublin.
Garnier and Bodley			School Board Offices	Spain.
Garnier	French	1825-	Opera (1863-75)	Dublin.
Gärtner	German	1792-	Triumphal Arch	London.
Genga	Italian	16th cent.	Palace of Urbino, Cathedral	Paris.
Gerhardt von Riel	German	1795-1867	Cathedral (continued)	Ratisbon.
Germain	French	6th cent.	Plan of St. Germain	Urbino. Mantua.
Giasomo	Italian	18th cent.	Lynce Hall	Cologne.
Gibbes	British	16th "	Bath Abbey Church	Paris.
				England.
				Bath.

Gibbons	1720	St. Paul's, wood carvings	London.
Gibbs	1674-1754	Radclyffe Library	Oxford.
Gibson		Toddorden Town Hall	England.
Gil	16th cent.	Plan for Cathedral	Salamanca.
Giocondo	1450-1515	Notre Dame Bridge	Paris.
Giotto di Bondone	1439-1502	Cleaning of Lagoon.	Venice.
Giovanni da Pisa	1266-1337	Ducal Palace	Urbino.
Giuliano da Majano	14th cent.	Campitelli	Florence.
Godwin	1432-1491	Campo Santo. Churches, etc.	Pisa. Arezzo.
Goldcliff		Palazzo di Venezia. Palazzo Strozzi	Rome. Florence.
Goldcliff	12th cent.	Assize Court	Bristol.
Gondouin	18th "	St. Alban's Abbey	England.
Goujon	1515-1564	Ecole de Médecine	Paris.
Gribble		Sculptures	Louvre.
Gumiell		Oratory	Brompton.
Gundulf	1024-1108	College	Alcala de Hefares.
Hamilton	1785-1858	Rochester Castle. White Tower	Rochester. London.
Hansen	1813-1890	High School	Edinburgh.
Hardwick	1792-1870	Parliament Houses	Vienna.
Harlewin	16th cent.	Goldsmith's Hall	London.
Have		Rebuilt Abbey Church	Glastonbury.
Havens	16th cent.	Elizabethan Buildings	England.
Hawkesmoor	1661-1736	Gate of Honour	Cambridge.
Hawkestone	14th cent.	Catus College	London.
Henri de Narbonne		St. George's, Bloomsbury.	St. Mary Woolnoth
Henry of Blois		New Tower	Chester.
Henry of Glind		Cathedral	Verona.
Hermodorus		Conventual Churches, St. Cross and Rumsey	Hampshire.
Hermogenes		Begins Cathedral	Millan.
Herrera	1530-1597	Jupiter Statuor Temple. Mars Temple	Rome.
Hittorf	1792-1867	Temples of Bacchus, of Diana	Teos, Magnesia.
Holbein		Bridge. Palace	Segovia. Aranjuez.
Holland		St. Vincent de Paul	Paris.
Holt		Elizabethan Buildings	England.
Hoo	1740-1806	Carlton House, Old Drury Lane	London.
Hook	13th cent.	Public Schools	Oxford.
Hooker	17th "	Choir, Cathedral	Rochester.
Horwood	15th "	Old Bethlehem Hospital. Ashle Almshouses	London.
		Collegiate Chapel	Fotheringhay.

Alphabetical List of European Architects — *continued*

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Hugh of Lincoln	British	1135-1200	Choir, Cathedral	Lincoln.
Hugh of Wells	British	c. 1209	Nave, Cathedral	Lincoln.
Huvé	French	1783-1852	Madeleine	Paris.
Hylmer	British	16th cent.	St. George's Chapel	Windsor.
Ictinus	Greek	c. 430 B. C.	Parthenon. Temples of Ceres, Apollo	Athens. Eleusis, Arcadia.
Inwood	British	1771-1843	St. Pancras New Church	London.
Isenbert	French	17th cent.	Bridges	Saintes, Rochelle, London.
Isidorus of Byzantium	Greek	6th "	Zenobia city	Syria.
Ivarus of Miletus	Greek	6th "	St. Sophia (assisted 532-538)	Constantinople.
Ivara	Italian	1685-1755	Church del Carmine	Turin.
Jacobus of Meruan	Italian	18th cent.	St. Francis	Assisi.
Jacques	French	18th "	Royal Abbey of St. Louis	Rouen.
Jamies	British	18th "	Hanover Square	London.
Jansen	British	c. 1616	Audley End	Essex.
Johannes	Greek	7th cent.	Zenobia city	Syria.
John, Master	Italian	c. 1579	Cathedral (continued)	Cologne.
John of Padua	Italian	1573-1652	Longleat House	Wiltshire.
Jones, Inigo	British	fl. 1563	Ranquet House. Chapel, Lincoln's Inn	London.
Juan, Battista	Spanish	16th cent.	Escorial (begun)	Madrid.
Junker of Cologne	German	c. 1560	Cathedral Spire	Strasbourg.
Kave	British	15th cent.	Caius College	Cambridge.
Kendale	British	15th cent.	King's Works	England.
Kent	British	1684-1748	Temple of Venus. Horse Guards	Stowe. London.
Keys	British	15th cent.	All Souls' College	Oxford.
Klenze	German	1784-1864	Walhalla, Glyptothek, Pinacothek	Munich.
Labeyle	Swiss	18th cent.	Westminster Bridge	London.
Labrousse	French	1801-1905	Library of St. Geneviève	Paris.
Lacer	Roman	2d cent.	Bridge over Tagus	Spain.
Lanfranc	British	1005-1089	Choir, Cathedral	Canterbury.
Lanfrani, G.	Italian	14th cent.	Church of St. Francis	Imola. Venice.
Langhaus	German	18th "	Brandenburg Gate	Berlin.



Lapo . . . . .	German	13th cent.	Convent and Church, Bargello	Assisi.
Lassus . . . . .	French	1807-1857	Church, Belleville Restorations	Florence.
Latomus . . . . .	British	14th cent.	Chapter house, etc.	Paris.
Laurana, F. . . . .	Italian	c. 1482	Ducal Palace	Evsebam.
Le Breton . . . . .	French	c. 1528	Fontainebleau Palace	Urbino.
Ledoux . . . . .	French	18th cent.	Barrieres, Hotel Thelluson	Fontainebleau.
Lefuel . . . . .	French	1810-1881	Completion Louvre and Tuileries	Paris.
Legrand . . . . .	French	18th cent.	Theatre Fédéral	Paris.
Lemercier . . . . .	French	1985-1660	St. Eustache, Sorbonne Chapel, Val de Grace	Paris.
Lenepveu . . . . .	French	c. 1526	Palais Royal	Chambord.
Leonardo da Vinci . . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	Aqueduct of Adda	Milan.
Lescot . . . . .	Italian	16th "	Fontaine des Innocents. S. W. Angle Louvre	Paris.
Le Vau . . . . .	Greek	5th cent. B. C.	Temple of Jupiter	Versailles.
Libon . . . . .	Italian	-1580	Villa Medici	Olympia.
Ligorio . . . . .	Italian	c. 1540	Prince's Palace	Rome.
Lippi, A. . . . .	Italian	c. 1480	Palace, School of St. Mark's	Wismar.
Lombardi, A. . . . .	Italian	c. 1480	Renaissance Buildings	Venice.
Lombardi, Mor. . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	School of San Marco	Venice.
Lombardi, M. . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	Tomb of Dante, church of S. S. Paolo and Giovanni	Ravenna, Venice.
Lombardi, S. . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	S. Salvatore	Venice.
Lombardi, T. . . . .	Italian	c. 1530	Santa Maria della Salute, Grimani Palace	Venice.
Lombardo, P. . . . .	Italian	1433-1515	Palazzo Vendramini	Venice.
Longhena . . . . .	Italian	1604-1682	Library of St. Mark's. San Giorgio Maggiore Convent	Venice.
Lorenzetto . . . . .	Italian	1494-1541	Palazzo Piccolomini	Siena.
Lorenzo . . . . .	French	1215-1270	Theatre	Bordeaux.
Louis of France . . . . .	Italian	1400-1482	Sainte Chapelle	Paris.
Luca della Robbia . . . . .	Spanish	1556-1639	Palazzo Borghese	Rome.
Machuca . . . . .	Italian	1556-1639	Royal Palace	Granada.
Maderna . . . . .	Spanish	16th cent.	Nave, St. Peter's, Palace of Urban VIII.	Rome.
Maestro Filippo . . . . .	Spanish	16th cent.	St. Peter's (changes)	Seville.
Majano, B. . . . .	Italian	1442-1497	Restoration of Cathedral	Florence.
Majano, G. . . . .	Italian	1432-1491	Pulpit, Santa Croce	Naples.
Mandrocles . . . . .	Greek	6th cent. B. C.	Palazzo del Poggio Reale	Bosphorus.
			Wooden Bridge	

## Alphabetical List of European Architects — continued

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Manlio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	16th cent. . . . .	Church and Hospital della Nunziata . . . . .	Naples.
Mansard, F. . . . .	French . . . . .	1598-1666 . . . . .	Abbey Val de Grace . . . . .	Paris.
Mansard, J. . . . .	French . . . . .	1645-1708 . . . . .	Domus des Invalides . . . . .	Paris.
Marchionne . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1704-1780 . . . . .	Sacristy, St. Peter's . . . . .	Rome.
Marini . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Waldstein Palace . . . . .	Prague.
Martino . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Arch. of Alfonso of Aragona . . . . .	. . . . .
Mascoli . . . . .	British . . . . .	16th cent. . . . .	Christ Church College . . . . .	Oxford.
Mauccio . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1280-1305 . . . . .	Santa Maria Nuova . . . . .	Naples.
Matthew of Arras . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Cathedral . . . . .	Prague.
Mauritius . . . . .	British . . . . .	1033- . . . . .	Old St. Paul's . . . . .	London.
Melsonby . . . . .	British . . . . .	13th cent. . . . .	Part of Cathedral . . . . .	Durham.
Meo del Caprino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	. . . . .	Palazzo de Venezia . . . . .	Rome.
Mercier . . . . .	French . . . . .	17th cent. . . . .	Sorbonne, Palais Royal . . . . .	Paris.
Merlano . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	16th " . . . . .	Strada di Toledo, Castel Capuano, etc. . . . .	Naples.
Mervan . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	. . . . .	Part Cathedral . . . . .	Milan.
Métzéau . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Tuileries, Extension . . . . .	Paris.
Metrodorus . . . . .	Persian . . . . .	4th cent. . . . .	Buildings . . . . .	Constantinople.
Michael Angelo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1475-1564 . . . . .	Library of the Medici and Fortifications, St. Peter's . . . . .	Florence. Rome.
Michelozzi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1391-1472 . . . . .	Riccardi Palace. Pitti Palace . . . . .	Florence.
Mino da Fiesole . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1431-1484 . . . . .	Churches . . . . .	Florence, Fiesole, Rome.
Mnesicles . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	C. 437 B.C. . . . .	Propylae of Parthenon . . . . .	Athens.
Mnesthes . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	5th cent. B.C. . . . .	Temple of Apollo . . . . .	Magnesia.
Montereau . . . . .	French . . . . .	13th " . . . . .	Chapel . . . . .	Vincennes.
Monterrand . . . . .	French . . . . .	1786-1854 . . . . .	St. Isaac's . . . . .	St. Petersburg.
Moaton . . . . .	British . . . . .	16th cent. . . . .	Part of Lambeth Palace . . . . .	London.
Mountford . . . . .	British . . . . .	. . . . .	Town Hall . . . . .	Sheffield.
Mutius . . . . .	Roman . . . . .	1st cent. . . . .	Temple of Ceres . . . . .	Rome.
Myne . . . . .	British . . . . .	18th " . . . . .	Blackfriars' Bridge, Inverary Castle . . . . .	London.
Nash . . . . .	British . . . . .	1752-1835 . . . . .	Buckingham Palace, Regent St. . . . .	London.
Nelson . . . . .	British . . . . .	. . . . .	Junior United Service Club . . . . .	London.

Nénot	Italian	13th cent.	Sorbonne	Paris.
Nicola da Pisa	Greek	2d "	Church and Convent	Bologna.
Nicon	Italian	15th "	Works	Pergamus.
Normando	British	c. 1097	Church S. Severino. Buildings	Naples. Spain.
Odo	Spanish	16th cent.	Monastic Church	Croyland.
Ohlmüller	Italian	1308-1368	Auerliche	Munich.
Olazago	British	15th cent.	Cathedral	Huesca.
Oragna	Italian	c. 1580	Or San Michele	Florence.
Orchevarde	British	18th cent.	Magdalen College	Oxford.
Padova	British	1518-1580	Longleat House	Wiltshire.
Paine	British	17th cent.	Mansion House	Doncaster.
Paley and Austin	Italian	1817-1897	Churches	Lancashire.
Palladio	French	1527-1598	Olympic Theatre. Il Redentore. San Giorgio Maggiore	Vicenza. Venice.
Pautre	British	1601-1871	Wings of St. Cloud. Port Royal Church	St. Cloud.
Pearson	Italian	1764-1838	Cathedral. Churches	Truro. London.
Pellegrino	British	16th cent.	Cathedral. S. Fedele Church	Milan.
Pennethorne	French	1628-1703	Geological Museum	London.
Percier	British	18th cent.	Tuileries. Chapelle Expiatoire. Arc de Triomphe du Carrousel	Paris.
Percy	Spanish	1481-1536	Brick Buildings. Leicester Abbey	England.
Perez	French	13th cent.	Cathedral	Toledo.
Perrault	French	3d cent. B. C.	Pyramid of Louvre. Chapel of Sceaux	France.
Perreal	French	480 B. C.	Altar Tomb	Nantes.
Perronet	British	16th "	Bridge of Neuilly	Paris.
Peruzzi	Italian	17th cent.	Cathedral. Palazzo Massimi	Carp. Rome.
Peto and Ernest	British	18th cent.	London Bridge	London.
Phaeax	Italian	3d cent. B. C.	Collingham Gardens	London.
Phidias	Greek	4th cent. B. C.	Buildings	Agrigentum.
Philo	Greek	16th "	Parthenon	Athens.
Pierre	French	c. 1483	Arsenal and Piræus	Athens.
Pierassanta	Italian	16th cent.	Hôtel de Loytes and Beauvilliers	Paris.
Pino	Italian	1471-1491	San Agostino	Rome.
Pintelli	Italian	1492-1546	Genoa Vecchia church and convent	Naples.
Pippi	Italian	1240-1320	Santa Maria del Popolo. Palaces	Rome.
Pisano, G.	Italian	1206-1278	Villa Madama. Palazzo Cenci. Pal. del Tè	Rome. Mantua.
Pisano, N.	Italian		Campo Santo. Cathedral Façade	Pisa. Siena.
			Pulpit, Baptistry	Pisa.

# Alphabetical List of European Architects — *continued*

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Polaert . . . . .	Flemish	. . . . .	Palace of Justice	Brussels.
Pollajuolo . . . . .	Italian	1457-1508	Hall, Palazzo Vecchio	Florence.
Poore . . . . .	British	13th cent.	Part of Cathedral . . . . .	Durham.
Porta . . . . .	Italian	1542-1604	Villa Aldobrandini	Rome. Naples.
Postumius . . . . .	Roman	1st cent. B. C.	Buildings . . . . .	Rome.
Poyet . . . . .	French	. . . . .	Corps Legislatif . . . . .	Paris.
Pozzo . . . . .	Spanish	. . . . .	Dominican Convent. Bridge near Cuenca.	Italy.
Pugin . . . . .	British	1812-1852	St. George in the Fields. Killarney Cathedral	England. Ireland.
Pytheus . . . . .	Greek	1st cent. B. C.	Mausoleum of Artemisia in Caria	Halicarnassus.
Rabirius . . . . .	Roman	5th "	Palace of Domitian on Mt. Palatine	Rome.
Raimond . . . . .	French	12th "	Cathedral of Lugo . . . . .	Italy.
Ranulf . . . . .	British	10th "	Norham Castle . . . . .	Great Britain.
Raphael . . . . .	Italian	1483-1520	Continued St. Peter's. Palazzo Caffarelli	Rome.
Rari . . . . .	French	14th "	Finished Notre Dame . . . . .	Paris.
Rede . . . . .	British	14th cent.	Library Merton College, Amberg Castle	Oxford. Sussex.
Remigius . . . . .	British	11th "	Part of Cathedral . . . . .	Lincoln.
Revelt . . . . .	British	. . . . .	St. George's Hall . . . . .	Liverpool.
Rickman . . . . .	British	1776-1841	St. John's College . . . . .	Cambridge.
Riel . . . . .	German	. . . . .	Cathedral (continued) . . . . .	Cologne.
Rinz . . . . .	Spanish	16th cent.	Torre della Giralda finished	Seville.
Ripley . . . . .	British	18th "	Houghton Hall, Admiralty	England.
Rizzio . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	Court of Doge's Palace . . . . .	Venice.
Robson and Stevenson	British	. . . . .	School Board Work . . . . .	London.
Roger of York . . . . .	British	12th cent.	Work on Cathedral . . . . .	York.
Romano . . . . .	Italian	1492-1546	Palazzo del Tè. Villa Madama	Rome.
Romualdus . . . . .	French	9th cent.	Cathedral . . . . .	Rheims.
Rossellini . . . . .	Italian	1409-1464	St. Peter's . . . . .	Rome.
Sacchetti . . . . .	French	18th cent.	Royal Palace . . . . .	Madrid.
Salvi . . . . .	Italian	c. 1155	Baptistry. Fountain of Trevi	Pisa. Rome.
Sammichele . . . . .	Italian	1284-1554	Madonna delle Grazie . . . . .	Montefiascone.
San Gallo, A., Sr. . . . .	Italian	1455-1534	Church of the Madonna . . . . .	Lorato.

San Gallo, A., Jr.	Italian	1483-1546	Palazzo Sacchetti	Rome.
San Gallo, G.	Italian	1445-1516	Clouter, Santa Maddalena de' Pazzi	Florence.
San Luciano	Italian	16th cent.	Palace of Sanseverino	Naples.
Sanmicheli	Italian	1484-1559	Cathedral. Palazzo Pompeii	Monte Fiascone.
San Pietro	Portuguese	13th cent.	Bridge	Verona.
Sansovino	Italian	1477-1570	San Giorgio dei Greci, Library St. Mark's	Tui.
Satyrus	Greek	5th cent.	Mausoleum	Venice.
Saxulphus	British	7th cent. B. C.	Peterborough Monastery	Halicarnassus.
Scamozzi	Italian	1552-1616	San Giorgio Maggiore facade, Cornaro Palace	England.
Schinkel	German	1781-1841	St. Nicholas. Potsdam court. Theatre	Venice.
Schmidt	German	1835-1891	Town Hall. Church of Lazarists	Berlin.
Scopas	Greek	420 B. C.	Pt. of Mausoleum. Pt. of Temple at Ephesus	Vienna.
Scott	British	1811-1878	St. Agnes. Albert Memorial. Pembroke Coll.	Asia Minor.
Sedding	German	1837-1892	Holy Trinity Church	London.
Semper	German	1803-1879	Theater. Museum	Chelsea.
Sennemar	Arabian	5th cent.	Sedid and Khavarnack Palaces	Dresden.
Sens, William of			Choir of Cathedral	Arabia.
Serlio	Italian	1473-1554	Palace of Grimani. Fontainebleau	Canterbury.
Servandoni	French	18th cent.	Part of St. Sulpice	Venice. France.
Severus	Roman	1st	Golden House of Nero	Rome.
Shaw	British	16th cent.	New Zealand Chambers. Lowther Lodge	London.
Shute	British	16th cent.	Opera House	Great Britain.
Siccardusburg	Austrian	1813-1868	Cathedral and Alcazar	Vienna.
Slive	Spanish	C. 1529	Museo Pio Clementino, Vatican	Granada.
Simonetti	Italian	18th cent.	St. Alban's Abbey Church	Rome.
Sisseeverne	British	12th	British Museum, General P. O.	England.
Smirke, R.	British	1780-1867	Conservative Club	London.
Smirke, S.	British	1799-1877	Wallaton Hall	London.
Smithson	British	1560-1614	Bank of England. Board of Trade	Nottinghamshire.
Soane	British	1753-1837	Santa Maria della Passione	London.
Solari	Italian	1470-1523	Pharos	Milan.
Sostratus	Greek	4th cent. B. C.	Hospital. Part of Ste. Genevieve. Pantheon	Alexandria.
Soufflot	French	1713-1780	Cathedral	Lyons. Paris. Rennes.
Spentharus	Greek	5th cent. B. C.	Rebuilt Temple of Apollo	Delphi.
Stenbach, Erwin von	German	fl. 1318	Part of Cathedral	Strasbourg.
Stella			Helvedere	Prague.
Stern			Facade Santo Carlo Theatre	Naples.

Alphabetical List of European Architects — *continued*

Name of Architect	Nationality	Date	Masterpiece	Location
Street . . . . .	British	1824-1881	New Law Courts	London.
Stuart . . . . .	British	1800-1865	St. George's Hall	Liverpool.
Stüler . . . . .	German	18th cent.	New Museum	Berlin.
Sugger . . . . .	French	12th cent.	Rebuilt Church and Abbey	St. Denis.
Talenti, F. . . . .	Italian	17th cent.	Dome, Part of Campanile	Florence.
Talenti, S. . . . .	Italian	17th cent.	Loggia del Lanai	Florence.
Taylor, R. . . . .	British	1714-1788	Part of Bank of England	London.
Tatti, J. . . . .	Italian	16th cent.	Palazzo Niccolini	Venice.
Teocopuli . . . . .	Greek	16th "	College Donna Maria d'Arragona	Rome.
Tessin . . . . .	Greek	16th "	Royal Palace	Madrid.
Theodoros . . . . .	Greek	7th cent. B. C.	Labyrinth Buildings	Stockholm.
Thomas of Canterbury	British	14th "	St. Stephen's Chapel	Lemnos.
Thompson . . . . .	British	1550-1617	St. Paul's Church	Sparta.
Thorpe . . . . .	British	1567	Holland House, Hatfield House, Burleigh	Westminster.
Thyane . . . . .	British	16th cent.	Somerset House	London.
Tietand . . . . .	Swiss	16th "	Convent	London.
Tioda . . . . .	Spanish	16th "	Palace of Alfonso	Emisedela.
Tite . . . . .	British	1789-1873	Royal Exchange	Oviedo.
Titz . . . . .	German	16th cent.	Victoria Theatre	London.
Torregiano . . . . .	Italian	16th "	Tombs	Berlin.
Uria . . . . .	Spanish	16th "	Bridge of Almaraz over the Tagus	Westminster.
Usamber . . . . .	Spanish	16th "	Cathedral	Spain.
Valdevira . . . . .	Spanish	16th "	Chapel San Salvador, Jean Cathedral	Charres.
Valentino di Lira . . . . .	Roman	2d cent. B. C.	Fürstenthof	Ubeda, Spain.
Valerius . . . . .	Roman	1666-1726	Amphitheatres with roofs	Wismar.
Van Aken . . . . .	British	1666-1726	Fürstenthof	Rome.
Vanburgh . . . . .	Dane	1700-1773	Blenheim House, Castle Howard	Wismar.
Van Moort . . . . .	Dane	1700-1773	Pilasters, Sharp Gables	England.
Van Noye . . . . .	Italian	1700-1773	Palace, Camera	Denmark.
Vanvitelli . . . . .	Italian	1700-1773	Palace, Camera	Denmark.

Vaasri	Italian	1512-1574	Baptistry	Florence.
Via	French		Hôtel de Ville	Orléans.
Viel	French		Palais de l'Industrie (destroyed)	Paris.
Vignola	Italian	1507-1573	Palace at Caprarola, Villa of Pope Julius	Italy.
Vignon	French	c. 1804	Madeleine	Paris.
Violet le Duc	French		Château	Pierrefonda.
Vischer	German		Pläsenburg	Germany.
Visconti	Italian	1791-1853	Completion of Louvre and Tuileries	Paris.
Vitoni	Italian	15th cent.	Church del Umila	Pistoja.
Vitruvius Cædo	Italian	1st "	Triumphal Arch	Verona.
Vitruvius Pollio	Italian	1st "	Basilica Justinae	Fano.
Von der Null	German		Opera House	Vienna.
Vulhamy	British	1795-1871	Holford Mansion, Dorchester House	London.
Walkely	British	10th cent.	Cathedral, Part	Winchester.
Wallot, P.	German		Parliament House	Berlin.
Walsingham	British	14th cent.	Lantern Tower, Cathedral	Ely.
Ware	British	18th "	Foot's Cray	England.
Warren	British	17th "	St. Mary's Church, Tower	England.
Waterhouse	British		Natural History Museum, S. Kensington	London.
Wayneffete	British	15th cent.	Magdalen College, Eton College	Oxford.
Webb	British	c. 1661	Ancsbury House, S. Kensington Museum	London.
Webb	British	14th cent.	St. Stephen's Chapel	Westminster.
Weston	British		St. Stephen's Club	London.
Whitchord	British	1174	Hanging Tower	Pisa.
Wilhelm	German	1778-1839	National Gallery, King's College	London.
Wilkins	British	12th cent.	Cathedral	Canterbury.
William of Sens	British	14th "	New College. Part of Cathedral (Vaulting)	Oxford.
William of Wykeham	British	1704-1754	Prior Park	Winchester.
Wood	British		Museum	Bath.
Woodward and Deane	British		St. Paul's, St. Stephen's, Greenwich Hospi-	Oxford.
Wren	British	1632-1723	Courtyard. India Office	London.
Wyatt, Sir Digby	British	1820-1877	Dulwich. Picture Gallery. Bank of England	London.
Wyatt, Jas.	British	1748-1813	Exchange	Liverpool
Wyatt, Th.	British	1809-1880	N. Wing Chisworth. Additions to Windsor	England.
Wyatville, Sir B.	British	1766-1840	Municipal Buildings	Glasgow.
Young	British		Ludwigskirche	Munich.
Ziebland	German			

## Elementary Reading

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## XXXIV

### MUSIC

To define sound and music comprehensively would require more space than we can devote to the whole subject; we must therefore content ourselves with the statement that sound is vibration, and that music is composed of a pleasurable succession of sounds.

The history of music is the history of its gradual evolution, or perchance, as it is more generally understood, of the evolution of the instruments which best interpret what the human heart feels and the human imagination pictures. The most perfect of instruments is the human voice, whose music at its best cannot be surpassed or even equalled by any instrument man's ingenuity can devise, never mind how perfect or how well played.

It is conjectured that primitive man "drummed and thrummed before he piped, and that he piped before he plucked"; so it is inferred that the drum, pipe, and lyre came only successively into play.

In all primitive people some sort of chant or rhythmical noise accompanied the prayers to whichever deity they chose to honour; therefore religion and music are often considered synchronous. That music was used in all the modes of worship of which we are cognisant is a recognised fact, and even in early specimens of pictorial art we find that musical instruments were already in use. In fact, the invention of the lyre was ascribed by the Egyptians to their god Thoth, and by the Greeks to Mercury, who is said to have bestowed this instrument upon Apollo in exchange for the caduceus.

The funeral hymns of the Egyptians and of the Babylonians have been preserved for us, and are the earliest records of dirge or funeral music; and the Greek plays, with their chanted chorus, are the first form the opera

assumed. Although not a note of this Greek music has been preserved, we have ample and conclusive proof that it existed, and even if the notes are lost, we can still peruse the words of the famous hymns to Apollo, Nemesis, and Calliope.

The Greeks knew the perfect intervals of the natural scale, and had Dorian, Ionian, Phrygian, Æolian, Lydian, and Mixolydean measures. Music was taught to all young men and maidens, even in the primary schools, and was used at all times, in the home, at public festivals, and even in war, as is demonstrated by the story of Tyrtæus, and his leadership of the Spartans during the Messenian war.

From Greece music travelled to Rome, where some form of musical ritual had long been practised. Still, this additional knowledge does not seem to have greatly enriched Roman music until the early Christians began to make use of it, to reproduce as nearly as possible the music with which the Jews had been wont to "sing unto the Lord" in the Temple at Jerusalem. Ambrose, bishop of Milan, collected all extant melodies in 384 A. D., and then laid down a code of technical laws, which were adopted and extended by St. Gregory (c. 500), who combined the melodies into plain chant. There are two styles of this music, — the Ambrosian, still used at Milan, and the Gregorian, with which most people who care for music are now familiar. The oldest ecclesiastical music we possess consists of the hymn-tunes in these collections, and it was only after this that music began to be treated as a mathematical or exact science. In the ninth century a new system of notation was introduced, and sign-writing superseded the method used by Gregory. Then the Flemish monk Hucbald introduced horizontal lines to represent the stave, and his work on "Diaphony" is the first contribution to the vast literature on Harmony.

Another monk, Guido d'Arezzo (c. 995-1050), introduced the names of Ut (do), re, mi, fa, sol, la, si, for the notes of the scale, and Franco of Cologne made

the first attempt to record the measure of notes, adopting four standards of length. A time signature, placed at the beginning of the music, showed whether one long note was to be equal to two or three short ones, etc. Later came the introduction of descant, ornamental notes, counterpoint, motets, and finally the first attempts at part-singing.

The musical development of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries centres principally in Paris, where *trouvères*, *troubadours*, and *jongleurs* all cultivated poetry and music. Thence it spread over France, Germany, and Southern England, where noted and noble minstrels can be found, including King Robert I of France, Thibaut of Champagne, Adam de la Halle, Walter von der Vogelweide, Wolfram von Eschenbach, Frauenlob, Hans Sachs, etc.

In the early part of the fifteenth century the Netherlands boast of Dufay, the minstrel of Philip the Good of Burgundy, and after him come several men of note, all of whom were surpassed, however, by Deprès, writer of church and secular music, a member of the Papal Choir from 1471 to 1484.

In 1591 the art of printing from music type began to be practised, and henceforth music was cultivated more diligently than ever, and the number of composers notably increased.

The Italian school made such rapid strides forward in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries that all the others were eclipsed, although they were not without their modest lights. The best known name of that epoch is that of Palestrina, the greatest master of the pure choral style. Just as the Italian school began to wane, the English school waxed great, and composers of this nation supplied the first music adapted for the modern piano-forte. It was in the seventeenth century, also, that oratorios and operas began to multiply, and that Lully, Purcell, Scarlatti, Händel, and Bach made their immortal contributions to the world's music in these and other branches.

The improvement wrought in violins by Italian violin-makers, and the strides taken by organ-builders as well, proved a great incentive to composers; besides, the clavichord and harpsichord were coming more and more into general use, and therefore music for these instruments was in great demand.

It is said that the history of musical instruments can be divided into three well-defined periods, — the first extending from the fifteenth century to Bach, the second lying between Bach and Beethoven, and the third running from Beethoven to the present day. The characteristic of the first period was the contrapuntal method; the second saw the development of pure harmony, culminating in such sonatas as Beethoven's, while the third is noted for its modifications of both previous styles and the use it makes of orchestration.

Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries we hear of much good music, and the names of many noted composers meet our eyes when we look over a list of musicians of that age. The nineteenth century, or rather the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth, heralds the advent of symphonies, such as were written by Haydn and Mozart.

It is to Clementi that we owe the modern pianoforte as well as the famous "Gradus ad Parnassum," — part of the "curriculum of every piano student." Since the invention of this instrument, it has, of course, undergone countless changes and improvements, and has become so popular that music is now heard and cultivated, to a slight degree at least, in almost every household. The study of music, like that of any other fine art, demands all one's time and strength if it is to be carried out thoroughly; but even a slight knowledge of its history and meaning will repay an amateur by enabling him to understand better such music as he hears.

In Europe, where music has been cultivated for centuries, where leisure is greater, and the daily demands upon one's energies less, you hear on all sides excellent music sung and played even by ordinary people. In

Italy an audience of common people knows the airs of all the most popular operas and can applaud with discrimination, and in Germany and Austria concerts are always attended by an intelligent public. The free music schools and concerts of Europe are legion, and there are besides famous conservatories, where talented pupils can readily obtain scholarships, and where, even if you are obliged to pay tuition fees, you will find that the charges are insignificant compared to the instruction you receive. In Germany, also, the students from the Conservatory can obtain half-price tickets for concerts and operas, and are thus able to hear all the best music at moderate cost.

To become a thorough musician requires years of hard work and careful training, even in such centres as Leipzig, for instance, where one seems to breathe music with the air and to absorb it by every pore. Throngs of music students from every part of the world frequent the great conservatories of Leipzig, Berlin, Vienna, and Paris, as well as the classes of the most famous teachers in any branch they wish to study.

Each country has its particular attractions, advantages, and specialties, concerning which the prospective student should duly inform himself or herself before deciding where to locate to pursue musical studies to the best advantage. In the bibliography subjoined are given the most important books which can serve as a guide in the study of musical history, and an alphabetical list will supply the names of the principal musicians with dates and nationality.

To the ordinary traveller we would advise visits to the principal opera houses, concert halls, etc., in the course of his journey, so that he can study the character of the music given in each place, the audience, and its manner of receiving the entertainment. The military bands playing on the public squares and in the parks, also afford an opportunity to study popular tastes, and every traveller ought to try and hear the folk-songs of the various countries he visits. The person who has not heard the

Venetian boatman sing at the paddle, or the Swiss mountaineer jodel, has missed something delightful; so have those who failed to hear the famous chimes of sundry places, the Alpine horn, the great organs, the singing of men's choruses, etc. In fact, one of the most charming reminiscences of the present writer is a musical festival in Switzerland, whither choruses from far and wide came to compete for a prize. The singing of the various parties, as they rowed over the lake on their way to and from the meeting-place at Lucerne, singing the while until you felt as if you were translated, still lingers delightfully in my memory.

In each country you visit try also to attend some great public or military gathering, so as to hear the national air sung with the force and fervour which patriotism supplies, — an experience which will give you an insight into the people's feelings, as well as send thrills up and down your spine.

### Alphabetical List of Great European Composers

Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Abert . . . . .	Bohemian . . . . .	1832-
Abt . . . . .	German . . . . .	1819-1885
Adam . . . . .	French . . . . .	1802-1856
Adam de la Halle . . . . .	French . . . . .	1235-1287
Adams . . . . .	British . . . . .	1785-1858
Agricola . . . . .	German . . . . .	1496-1556
Aichinger . . . . .	German . . . . .	1565-1621
Albinoni . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1670-1742
Alcock . . . . .	British . . . . .	1715-1806
Allegri . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1584-1652
Ambrose, St. . . . .	French . . . . .	340- 397
Anerio, F. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1560-1630
Animuccia . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1500-1571
Arcadelt . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1514-1575
Arne, T. A. . . . .	English . . . . .	1710-1778
Arniero . . . . .	Portuguese . . . . .	1828-
Astorgo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1683-1736
Augustine, St. . . . .	North Africa . . . . .	354- 430
Bach, C. P. . . . .	German . . . . .	1714-1788
Bach, J. S. . . . .	German . . . . .	1685-1750
Balfe . . . . .	English . . . . .	1808-1870
Bargiel . . . . .	German . . . . .	1828-1897

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Bariola . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1594-
Barnby . . . . .	English . . . . .	1838-1886
Bassani . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1657-1716
Bateson . . . . .	British . . . . .	c. 1600
Beethoven . . . . .	German . . . . .	1770-1827
Bellini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1802-1835
Belloc . . . . .	. . . . .	1784-1855
Benedict . . . . .	English . . . . .	1804-1885
Benevoli . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1602-1672
Bennett . . . . .	English . . . . .	1816-1875
Berlioz . . . . .	French . . . . .	1803-1869
Bertini . . . . .	French . . . . .	1798-1876
Berton . . . . .	French . . . . .	1727-1780
Best . . . . .	British . . . . .	1826-1897
Bevin . . . . .	British . . . . .	c. 1605
Binchois . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1400-1460
Bishop, Sir H. . . . .	British . . . . .	1786-1855
Bizet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1838-1875
Boieldieu . . . . .	French . . . . .	1775-1834
Bontemps . . . . .	Portuguese . . . . .	1775-1842
Borodin . . . . .	Russian . . . . .	1834-1887
Boyle . . . . .	British . . . . .	1710-1779
Brahms . . . . .	German . . . . .	1833-1897
Bruch . . . . .	German . . . . .	1838-
Bull . . . . .	English . . . . .	1563-1628
Bülow, von . . . . .	German . . . . .	1830-1894
Buononcini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1660-1750
Buxtehude . . . . .	Danish . . . . .	1639-1707
Byrd . . . . .	English . . . . .	c. 1538-1623
Caccini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1546-1615
Caldara . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1678-1736
Cambert . . . . .	French . . . . .	c. 1628-1677
Carey . . . . .	British . . . . .	1692-1743
Carissimi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1604-1674
Cavalieri . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1550-1599
Cavalli . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1600-1676
Cecilia, St. . . . .	Roman . . . . .	-280
Cermak . . . . .	Bohemian . . . . .	1771-1822
Chaminade . . . . .	French . . . . .	1861-
Chélaré . . . . .	French . . . . .	1789-1861
Cherubini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1760-1842
Chopin . . . . .	Polish . . . . .	1809-1849
Cimarosa . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1749-1801
Clementi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1752-1832
Corelli . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1653-1713
Costa . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1810-1884
Cramer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1771-1858
Cruschnitt . . . . .	German . . . . .	1805-1841
Czerny . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1791-1857
Damon of Athens . . . . .	Greek . . . . .	B. C. 5th cent.
Damrosch . . . . .	German . . . . .	1832-1885
David, F. C. . . . .	French . . . . .	1810-1876
Delibes . . . . .	French . . . . .	1836-1891



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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Deprès . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1450-1521
Dessauer . . . . .	Bohemian . . . . .	1798-
Dibden . . . . .	British . . . . .	1745-1814
Dittersdorf . . . . .	German . . . . .	1739-1799
Donizetti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1797-1848
Dowland . . . . .	English . . . . .	1562-1626
Dufay . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1400-1474
Dunstable . . . . .	English . . . . .	c. 1400-1453
Durante . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1684-1755
Dussek . . . . .	Bohemian . . . . .	1761-1812
Dvorak . . . . .	Bohemian . . . . .	1841-
Dykes . . . . .	British . . . . .	1823-1876
Eccard . . . . .	German . . . . .	1553-1611
Eckert . . . . .	German . . . . .	1820-1879
Elvey . . . . .	British . . . . .	1816-
Erbach . . . . .	German . . . . .	1560-1628
Eslava . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1807-1878
Fasch . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1736-1792
Faugues . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1415
Festa . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1490-1545
Field, J. . . . .	English . . . . .	1782-1837
Florimo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1800-
Flotow . . . . .	German . . . . .	1812-1883
Franz . . . . .	German . . . . .	1815-1892
Frauenlob . . . . .	German . . . . .	1260-1318
Frescobaldi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1583-1644
Froberger . . . . .	German . . . . .	1605-1667
Fux . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1660-1714
Gabrieli, A. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1510-1586
Gabrieli, G. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1557-1612
Gade . . . . .	Danish . . . . .	1817-1890
Galuppi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1706-1785
Garlande . . . . .	French . . . . .	12th cent.
Gauntlett . . . . .	British . . . . .	1806-1876
Gernsheim . . . . .	German . . . . .	1839-
Gervinus . . . . .	German . . . . .	1805-1871
Gibbons, Orlando . . . . .	English . . . . .	1583-1625
Glinka . . . . .	Russian . . . . .	1804-1857
Glück . . . . .	German . . . . .	1714-1787
Godard . . . . .	French . . . . .	1849-1895
Goldmark . . . . .	Hungarian . . . . .	1832-
Goldschmidt . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1829-
Gombert . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1495-1570
Gomez . . . . .	Portuguese . . . . .	1839-1896
Gossec . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1734-1829
Gottschalk . . . . .	American . . . . .	1829-1869
Goudimel . . . . .	French . . . . .	c. 1505-1572
Gounod . . . . .	French . . . . .	1818-1893
Grammann . . . . .	German . . . . .	1844-
Graun . . . . .	German . . . . .	1701-1759
Gregory, St. . . . .	Roman . . . . .	540-604
Grétry . . . . .	French . . . . .	1741-1813.

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Grieg . . . . .	Norwegian . . . . .	1843-
Guglielmi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1727-1804
Guido d'Arezzo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 995-c. 1050
Halévy . . . . .	French . . . . .	1799-1862
Hallström . . . . .	Swedish . . . . .	1826-
Händel . . . . .	English . . . . .	1685-1759
Hartmann . . . . .	Danish . . . . .	1805-1900
Hassler . . . . .	German . . . . .	1564-1612
Hatton . . . . .	British . . . . .	1809-1886
Haydn . . . . .	German . . . . .	1732-1809
Heller . . . . .	Hungarian . . . . .	1814-1888
Herbeck . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1831-1877
Héroid . . . . .	French . . . . .	1791-1833
Hiller . . . . .	German . . . . .	1811-1885
Hoffmann . . . . .	German . . . . .	1842-1902
Hofhaimer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1459-1556
Horsley . . . . .	British . . . . .	1821-1876
Huber . . . . .	Swiss . . . . .	1852-
Hucbald . . . . .	French . . . . .	c. 840-c. 930
Humfrey . . . . .	English . . . . .	1647-1674
Hummel . . . . .	German . . . . .	1778-1837
Humperdinck . . . . .	German . . . . .	1854-
Isaac . . . . .	German . . . . .	c. 1450-1517
Isouard . . . . .	French . . . . .	1775-1818
Jensen . . . . .	German . . . . .	1837-1879
Jomelli . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1714-1774
Keiser . . . . .	German . . . . .	1674-1739
Kiel . . . . .	German . . . . .	1821-1885
Kirschner . . . . .	German . . . . .	1824-
Klughardt . . . . .	German . . . . .	1847-
Kretschmer . . . . .	German . . . . .	1830-
Kücken . . . . .	German . . . . .	1810-1882
Lacome d'Estaleux . . . . .	French . . . . .	1838-
Lasso, Orlando di . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	1520-1594
Lawes . . . . .	British . . . . .	1595-1662
Lecocq . . . . .	French . . . . .	1832-
Leo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1694-1766
Le Sueur . . . . .	French . . . . .	1760-1837
Lisle, Rouget de . . . . .	French . . . . .	1760-1836
Liszt . . . . .	Hungarian . . . . .	1811-1886
Logroscino . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1700-1763
Lortzing . . . . .	German . . . . .	1803-1851
Lotti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1667-1740
Lully . . . . .	French . . . . .	1638-1687
Luther . . . . .	German . . . . .	1483-1546
Lwoff . . . . .	Russian . . . . .	1799-1870
Macfarren . . . . .	British . . . . .	1813-1887
Maillart . . . . .	French . . . . .	1817-1871
Marshner . . . . .	German . . . . .	1795-1861

Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Martini . . . . .	German . . . . .	1741-1816
Massenet . . . . .	French . . . . .	1842-
Méulul . . . . .	French . . . . .	1763-1817
Mendelssohn . . . . .	German . . . . .	1809-1847
Mercadante . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1797-1870
Merulo . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1533-1604
Meyerbeer . . . . .	French . . . . .	1791-1864
Monteverde . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1568-1643
Monsigny . . . . .	French . . . . .	1729-1817
Morales . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	fl. 1550
Morley . . . . .	English . . . . .	1557-1604
Moscheles . . . . .	Austrian . . . . .	1794-1870
Mozart . . . . .	German . . . . .	1756-1791
Nanini, G. M. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1540-1607
Naprawink . . . . .	German-Russian . . . . .	1839-
Neswadba . . . . .	Bohemian . . . . .	1824-1876
Nicolai . . . . .	German . . . . .	1810-1849
Offenbach . . . . .	French . . . . .	1818-1880
Okeghem . . . . .	Flemish . . . . .	c. 1430-1513
Onslow . . . . .	British-French . . . . .	1784-1852
Pachelbel . . . . .	German . . . . .	1653-1706
Paderewski . . . . .	Pole . . . . .	1860-
Paisiello . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1741-1816
Palestrina . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1514-1594
Pearsall . . . . .	British . . . . .	1795-1856
Pedrotti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1817-
Pergolesi . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1710-1736
Peri . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	c. 1560-1630
Piccini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1728-1800
Pinsuti . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1829-1888
Porpora . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1686-1766
Prätorius . . . . .	German . . . . .	1571-1621
Purcell . . . . .	English . . . . .	1658-1695
Raff . . . . .	Swiss . . . . .	1822-1882
Rameau . . . . .	French . . . . .	1683-1764
Reber . . . . .	French . . . . .	1807-1880
Reicha . . . . .	Austro-French . . . . .	1770-1836
Reinecke . . . . .	German . . . . .	1824-
Reinthal . . . . .	German . . . . .	1822-1896
Ricci, F. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1809-1877
Ricci, L. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1805-1859
Riedel . . . . .	German . . . . .	1827-1888
Robert I. . . . .	French . . . . .	971-1031
Rossini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1782-1868
Rubinstein . . . . .	Russian . . . . .	1830-1894
Sacchini . . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1734-1786
Sachs . . . . .	German . . . . .	1494-1576
Saint-Saens . . . . .	French . . . . .	1835-
Sarasate . . . . .	Spanish . . . . .	1844-
Scarlatti, A. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1659-1725
Scarlatti, D. . . . .	Italian . . . . .	1683-c. 1757

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Artist.	Nationality.	Date.
Scharwenka, P.	German	1847-
Scharwenka, X.	German	1850-
Scheidt	German	1587-1654
Schein	German	1585-1630
Schubert	German	1797-1828
Schumann	German	1810-1856
Schulhof	Austrian	1825-
Schütz	German	1585-1672
Senfel	German	1492-1555
Smetana	Bohemian	1824-1884
Smith	British	1750-1836
Spohr	German	1784-1859
Spontini	Italian	1774-1851
Steffani	Italian	1655-1730
Steibelt	German	1755-1823
Stephens	English	1821-
Stradella	Italian	1645-1681
Strauss, J.	German	1825-1899
Strauss, R.	German	1864-
Sullivan	English	1842-1901
Svendsen	Scandinavian	1840-
Sweelinck	German	1562-1621
Tallys	English	C. 1520-1585
Tartini	Italian	1692-1770
Thalberg	Swiss	1812-1871
Thibaut of Champagne	French	1201-1253
Thomas, Ambroise	French	1811-1896
Tomaschek	Bohemian	1774-1830
Tosti	Italian	1846-
Tschaikowski	Russian	1840-1893
Tyrtæus	Greek	676 B. C.
Verdi	Italian	1813-1900
Verhulst	Dutch	1816-
Vieuxtemps	Belgian	1820-1881
Viotti	Italian	1753-1824
Vitali	Italian	1644-1692
Vittoria	Spanish	C. 1540-1608
Vogler	German	1749-1814
Vogrich	Austrian	1852-
Vogt	German	1823-
Wagner	German	1813-1883
Wallace	English	1824-1865
Walther von der Vogelweide	German	C. 1165-1230
Weber	German	1786-1826
Wilhelm, C.	German	1815-1873
Willært	Flemish	C. 1490-1562
Woelfl	German	1772-1812
Wolfram von Eschenbach	German	C. 1165-1220
Xenocrates	Greek	C. 335 B. C.
Zingarelli	Italian	1752-1837
Zumstiegl	German	1760-1808

## Elementary Reading

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## XXXV

### COST—MODE OF TRAVEL—PASSPORTS —MONEY

THERE are very few for whom the cost of a journey is not one of the first and greatest considerations. A trip to Europe can be as costly or as cheap as any one can wish. Some people have gone there and spent untold sums ; others have travelled from the Pillars of Hercules to the Volga, seeing much of what they wished to see of the intervening countries, at a cost of but fifty cents a day. This is, of course, what is generally termed a "tramp trip," the voyager being content with steerage passage across the ocean, and doing all his travel afterwards on foot, or third class when using a railway, and carrying his impedimenta in a knapsack.

If you wish to find out exactly how such a feat has been performed, read Lee Meriwether's "Tramp Trip," where all the itineraries, cost, distances, etc., are given at length, with much sprightly incidental information. Under the head of "Walking" or "Pedestrianism" in library catalogues, you will also find much supplementary information — as well as in the lists between these covers — for walking-tours are by no means infrequent and have been well written up by sundry trampers.

Riding-tours are, of course, infinitely more costly, not only on account of the initial outlay for a mule, donkey, horse, or camel, but also because you have to pay for your steed's food and shelter, as well as your own, even if you personally undertake its care. Besides, a horse-man is a person of means, compared to a tramp, and abroad as at home prices are often regulated according to what the tourist is supposed to be able to afford.

Since the bicycle came into vogue, cycling tours have

become very popular, and as the main roads in general are very good in Europe, this mode of cheap travel enables the tourist to get over considerable ground within a limited time and without undue exertion. Some wheels are fitted purposely for such journeys, and there are also special travelling-kits for cyclers, road maps indicating the best paths to follow, and clubs in most countries where all information about cost, routes, permits, licenses, checks, etc. can be easily obtained.

Any number of books have been written by wheel enthusiasts on this subject, and it is from them that you can derive the most reliable data for such a trip, should you contemplate taking it. Of course, this mode of travel is nearly as cheap as tramping, or perhaps even a trifle cheaper, if the cost of the wheel is not taken into account.

Driving-trips have also great charms, for they are another mode of seeing the country to better advantage than by rail, and you can thus become more intimately acquainted with the people than would be possible unless you were to walk, ride, or cycle through the same region. Driving can be done either along the simplest lines with a pony and cart, or in a more luxurious way with a comfortable phaeton—or other carriage—drawn by one or two horses, which you can drive and care for yourself, or entrust to the hotel grooms or to your own private attendant if you happen to travel with one.

Coaching in public vehicles has also its delights, for even the old diligence or stage-coach is not without its humours and romantic features; but if you are able to have your own coach with all the accessories that such a luxury entails,—and especially if you have a pleasant party,—you may repeat the delightful experience which Mr. Carnegie describes with so much enthusiasm in his "Coaching Tour."

It is quite possible in large centres in Great Britain to hire a coach and four-in-hand, with experienced driver, for a tour of almost any length and in almost any direction. On the Continent, especially in the Tyrol and Switzer-



land, large travelling-carriages are quite common, and are arranged to carry passengers and luggage alike. They can be hired for driving-tours of almost any length, and those who have tried this mode of travel declare no more delightful experience can be enjoyed than driving day by day along brawling streams, over wild mountain passes, and between towering heights, such as can be seen in the mountain regions of Norway, in the Black Forest, the Dolomites, over the various Alpine passes, and in fact throughout picturesque Switzerland, Savoy, Southern France, Spain, Italy, etc.

Recently motoring has become such a fad, that it is now possible in any of the continental centres to hire a chauffeur and automobile for a trip of any length of time provided you have the requisite means. It is customary to pay so much per day, — the prices varying according to the make, size, etc. of the machine, and the proficiency of the chauffeur as a motorman, machinist, and guide, for some of them actually combine these three functions. Books on motoring are appearing frequently now, "The Lightning Conductor," for instance; being responsible for much of the present craze for that mode of travel.

Railroads are so numerous in Europe, and the distance from one interesting point to another so very short, that there is no need for the ordinary tourist to bother about sleeping or even dining cars. The former are both rare and costly in Europe, carriages of that description being used only on the long express routes such as from Paris to Rome or Constantinople. As for dining-cars, they are even more infrequent; but prolonged stops enable travellers to get their meals at the station restaurants, or to give orders for meals which are served in portable stands or baskets placed in the carriage at one station and removed at the next.

As a rule, and for all short trips, most travellers will find themselves quite tolerably comfortable by travelling third class in England, and second class in all countries save Spain, where the railroad accommodation is so

deficient that the best seems none too good. It is a common saying in Europe that "none but princes, Englishmen, and fools travel first class," and Europeans, in general, patronise second class from choice. In railway stations and on the platforms, the waiting-rooms and cars are generally designated by numerals, showing plainly for which class they are reserved. Besides that, each car has a special number, name, or sign, which it is always well to note on leaving your place if you intend to return to it.

In most countries smoking is allowed in all the cars or compartments save those where "No smoking" is posted. In other places the smoking-cars are specially designated, — German, "Rauch Coupé"; French, "Pour Fumeurs." The signs, "Défense de fumer," "Rauchen verboten" (No smoking), are commonly seen, but often only mystify foreigners, so much so that it would almost seem advisable to resort to mechanical object pictures, showing a conductor, or other official, removing the objectionable pipe, cigar, or cigarette from the traveller's hand or mouth.

When land locomotion palls, tourists can have recourse to water travel, either in a canoe, launch, canal-boat, or steamboat, for Europe is intersected by such an intricate network of canals that it is quite possible, if you do not object to roundabout routes to pass from one great river to another and to go from end to end of the continent by water only. Such trips, undoubtedly, have great fascination for water lovers, and as sundry travellers have recorded their experiences on similar jaunts, it is comparatively easy to ascertain just how to do it, and what water ways are to be preferred.

In Europe the American system of baggage checking and transportation is quite unknown. In some countries not a pound of luggage (Englishmen never use the term "baggage") is transported free of charge; in others, a small quantity only is allowed. You can calculate with certainty that anything over sixty pounds is likely to cost a pretty penny, for luggage is always weighed, and you are

called upon to pay so much per extra pound for every mile you travel. In some countries you are given a receipt for your trunk (English, "box") or portmanteau—not a brass check like ours, but a paper slip like an express receipt. In others you have no voucher whatever, and hence no means of redress should your luggage be damaged, lost, or go astray. Each traveller must therefore learn to look after his own belongings, not only calling and feeing a railway porter to carry them from the cab to the luggage room, where they are weighed, but after paying all charges, lingering about to see them safely placed in the right luggage van, if he wants to be sure of finding them at the end of the journey.

For convenience' sake, it is always well to have all your articles plainly marked with your name and address in full, and if possible to have some clear, easily distinguished mark or colour, so that you can readily identify what is yours even at a distance. At the terminus, or even at the frontiers (where all luggage is taken out and examined by custom house officers), such marks are great conveniences. You will also find in many places that the luggage is piled up in sections, and if your name is Smith, your boxes, etc. will all be placed among the S's. This custom gave rise to a comical mistake, thus related by Goldwin Smith in his "Trip to England." An ecclesiastical dignitary whose name began with L. lodged a complaint before the board against a porter, who, when he asked for his luggage, told him to go to "Hell"!

All the straps on trunks and valises should be riveted fast to the article to which they belong, for strap stealing is a common and yet often untraceable offence. Travelers will also find it a great convenience to have duplicate keys for anything they lock. One of these keys should, of course, remain in the possession of the owner, who by paying one dollar can have his keys insured by a New York company and obtain besides a thousand dollar life and accident insurance policy for one year. The

second key should be entrusted to that member of the party who undertakes to see the luggage safely through the custom house.

The custom house examinations abroad are often more a matter of form than anything else. When you land in any part of Great Britain, frankly declare what liquors, tobacco in any form, and reprints from English copyright editions you may have. You will be allowed to carry one-half pint of spirits, and one-half pound of tobacco free; upon the rest you will have to pay a trifling duty. If you have any reprints, they will invariably be confiscated without further ado, for it is not allowed to bring them into the country.

In France they look carefully for tobacco and spirits, and after an almost nominal examination furnish you with a receipt for any duties paid, which it is well to keep handy, as, by showing it to the Octroi (Municipal custom house officers) at your arrival in Paris, or other large city, you will avoid the annoyance of a new search and the expense of duplicate payment.

A passport is indispensable if you intend to journey in Turkey or Russia, otherwise you may not need it. Still, it is always wise to be provided in case an emergency *should* arise, and it is certainly far easier and much less expensive to get it before you leave your native shores than on the other side. To secure a passport, write to the State Department, Passport Bureau, Washington, D. C., for a printed passport form. When you get it, fill it out, swear to what you have written before a notary, and send it back to the State Department with one dollar. The passport will soon be returned to you. If you are going to Turkey or Russia, it is well to take it to the nearest consuls of those nations, and have it properly stamped so as to make it valid in their respective countries. If you are not going either to Turkey or Russia, you need not have the document stamped by any consul, but it is always well to keep it at hand, so as to be able to produce it in case you need to be identified when you are calling for registered letters at the Post Office

or need the help of American consuls abroad in any emergency. You will also need a passport if you are going to follow certain lecture courses or if you intend to enter certain schools. Once in a while you may find yourself called upon to show it before you can consult the books in certain libraries or be admitted to private museums.

As far as money is concerned, you can best carry it in a letter of credit, a circular note, United States Express coupons, or Cook & Son coupons. The last-named firm has its agencies everywhere, and issues not only money, but hotel, restaurant, and other coupons, which are a very great convenience and saving, especially for inexperienced travellers. You can find out all about these coupons by inquiring at any of the Cook & Son agencies, which are found in all the large cities here and abroad.

If you join private parties, you will find that special arrangements are always made in regard to money matters, and you can settle the details very easily and satisfactorily, provided you deal only with responsible parties. It is well, however, always to start out provided with some of the currency of the country where you expect to land, for even if you have secured all your tickets, etc. in advance, you are sure to be called upon for fees anyway, and, although it is possible to pass American bills almost anywhere, it is always a matter of time to obtain change for them.

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## XXXVI

### PHYSICAL PREPARATION—TRAVEL- LING OUTFIT—TRUNKS, ETC. — FOOD AND DRINK—TEMPERATURE

It is always well to get in first-class physical condition before you undertake a journey if it is possible to do so, for if you want to make the most of the (probably limited) time you have to spend abroad, you will be likely to tax your strength daily just as far as it can go.

Most people have a family physician who knows their constitution, and who will therefore best be able to advise what laxatives they had better take both before sailing and while on board, for unless the whole digestive apparatus is kept in first-class running order, one is apt to be pretty sea-sick or at least very uncomfortable. Your physician can also give you some safe, simple remedies, fitted to your constitution, which you can take while abroad for any of the ordinary ailments to which your individual flesh is heir, thus sparing you many an uncomfortable moment as well as the necessity of calling in a strange practitioner, who, however good, may not immediately know how best to treat *you* for that particular trouble.

There are endless nostrums advertised as sure cures for sea-sickness, but, were the truth told, none of these remedies are infallible. The safest plan is not to take anything which your doctor does not heartily endorse, to avoid sweets, uncooked fruit, and all things not likely to agree with you. Comfort yourself with the thought that sea-sickness, while very unpleasant, is seldom dangerous, and that many persons feel much better after a trip when they have been actively sick a few days, than if they succeeded in warding off an attack, which, after all, is

nature's method of restoring a balance. When nauseated, it is always best to assume a recumbent attitude and to remain as quiet as possible. Take nothing but hot and easily assimilated liquid food, and have a hot-water bag (or a thermatite bag) which you can use either to keep your feet warm or to place on your stomach, for heat often soothes a spasm of sea-sickness when other remedies fail.

As soon as you feel at all able to do so, spend all your waking hours on deck, if the weather permits, taking as much exercise as possible, for that is one of the best ways to keep in good condition, in spite of the frequent and abundant meals for which sea-air gives an unwonted appetite as soon as one reaches the stage where one deserves the epithet of "good sailor."

It is possible on board, with the present-day accommodations, to arrange with the steward, or stewardess, for a daily hot or cold bath, and even to have daily baths of sea-water if they agree with you. Most travellers, however, will do well to learn before starting for Europe — if they have not already mastered the art — how to take a complete bath in a quart or so of water. It *can* be done, and *must* often be done abroad, where, as many of the houses were built long before the introduction of sanitary plumbing, every drop of water has to be carried up and down stairs. Water-carriers charge so many cents per bucket; so water becomes quite expensive enough to rank among luxuries, and scanty allowances are often dealt out. By gratuities you can frequently obtain extra and abundant supplies, but the traveller who has learned how to substitute a daily sponge and rub for the usual "tubbing," will be least uncomfortable when forced to resort to that method of ablution.

All travellers will find it convenient to have a piece of oiled silk, oilcloth, or even water-proof cloth, if not a bag, wherein to wrap wet sponges and damp towels, so that they cannot interfere with other articles of clothing. Besides all the usual toilet articles, travellers are ex-



pected to provide their own soap, which can be most conveniently carried in one of the thin metal boxes — easily purchased at any drug store — or as soap leaves. Papier poudré, if you use powder, and a small celluloid case, to protect tooth-brush bristles, are also great conveniences, and far preferable to bottles, boxes, cases, etc., which only add to the bulk and weight of your “impedimenta,” — a state of affairs it is best to avoid.

A flat “steamer trunk,” which can be left at the steamship office until the return trip, is often desirable. In this trunk you can put all the articles (steamer rug, small pillow, etc.) to be used on board, but which you are not likely to need during the remainder of your journey. A man should be provided with one medium weight travelling-suit, of good make, able to stand all kinds of weather, and showing the least possible amount of wear and dust. Underwear of extra thickness will make this suit warm enough even on the ocean, while medium and gauze underwear will adapt it to temperate or even to moderately warm regions.

An extra suit for emergencies, dress clothes if any need for them is likely to arise, and a mackintosh, which can answer for overcoat on cold days, waterproof in wet weather, and even dressing-gown at a pinch, will be the most convenient. A felt hat, of comfortable make and shape, and a travelling-cap answer every purpose as head gear for the average tourist, although there are times and places when the conventional high hat or the more jaunty straw is “de rigueur.” Travellers will, however, find it far better policy to buy such head gear when and where it is needed than to encumber themselves with bulky and troublesome hat boxes.

The easily laundered *négligé* shirts are also permissible when travelling, and as washing is done over night in hotels, there is no need to travel with more than the usual comfortable supply of underwear and linen of all kinds.

On board ship it is often a great convenience to use old handkerchiefs, which can be thrown away as soon as

soiled, for as it is not practicable to have any laundering done until you land, and as you are compelled to store your soiled linen in your cabin, handkerchiefs, etc., often prove offensive. If you have no stock of *old* handkerchiefs to dispose of in this way, you can purchase, for a trifle, a stock of the sanitary articles now used for consumptives, or even a cheap grade of linen, if you prefer. In fact, sanitary handkerchiefs, towels, and even in some cases, the much derided paper collars and cuffs, are a decided boon to those who are travelling rapidly, and with no more luggage than they can easily carry about by hand or on their backs.

Most travellers, male and female, will find it wise to take the least possible amount of clothing with them, for they can always supply deficiencies as they go along, and every unnecessary pound soon becomes an irksome burden. The only article of which both sexes should have an ample supply, at the start, is foot gear. Get the kind of shoes you are in the habit of wearing, and break them in before you leave, so that there will be the least possible risk of lame or tired feet. Remember that in the course of your sight-seeing you will be called upon to walk many a mile and to stand many an hour. Unless, therefore, your foot gear is absolutely comfortable, you cannot do so without vexation both of body and mind. Low heels — rubber preferred — are a great assistance, and in most cases "high-necked" shoes are far more desirable than any of the "décolleté" variety. On board ship, for instance, it is of paramount importance to keep your feet and ankles warm, which cannot be done with Oxford ties unless you wear gaiters too. In walking, and especially climbing, shoes that give support to the ankles — preferably laced shoes — are the most practical, as all experienced travellers bear witness. It is advisable to start out with an ample supply, mainly because "makes" differ widely in every country, and while American shoes can be secured abroad, you are likely to pay fancy prices for them.

Ladies should set out with one tailor-made skirt and

jacket, — as plain as possible, — of a material which will shed the dust and stand sun and rain. These two articles should be made in such a way that they can be donned in a hurry, without aid from any one else. Belt, collar, and tie should be securely fastened to skirt, waist, and jacket, so they cannot be mislaid even in an emergency. Now that fashion endorses loose waists, it is very easy to provide a variety, a few flannel, wash, and dress waists answering every requisite of the ordinary vacation tourist. But these waists should also be planned mainly for convenience, and small buttons, "back or under arm fastenings," and all manner of fancy or elaborate trimmings rigidly eschewed. A waist that can be put on in a hurry, without a hunt for a collar here, a belt there, and fastenings everywhere, is a great boon to the hurried and often weary traveller.

As it is difficult enough to don absolutely necessary articles in the restricted space a cabin affords, many ladies prefer to wear more outside wraps than extra underwear during the trip. A "sweater," and warm jacket, ulster, or coat, answer every purpose for the upper part of the body, and warm black woollen equestrian tights prove a great convenience and protection for the rest, for they can easily be drawn over the usual underwear, and obviate the use of additional flannels and skirts, which are uncomfortable in a steamer chair. This mode of dressing enables you to tread the decks in a high wind with a feeling of warmth, lightness, and security which no other style of garb supplies in the same measure.

If you are in mourning, or habitually wear black, do not, while on the ocean or up among the glaciers, don a black veil. Black is a heat conductor and absorbent, and those who wear black veils are liable to suffer martyrdom from blistered faces, and to present anything but an attractive appearance for weeks afterwards, for it takes a long while before the average complexion recovers from such a severe ordeal as that. Blue or green veils (beware of arsenic dyes) are the best protection,

but gray or white can be used if preferred. A veil of ample proportions, such as a motor veil, is best adapted to afford the necessary protection, and to conceal, if necessary, deficiencies in hair dressing. Of course, where ordinary land travel is concerned, there is not the same objection to black veils, and one can dress in the conventional way on shore, but it is not at all obligatory to do so at sea.

A soft travelling-hat, of any shape which is comfortable as well as becoming, trimmed in a way to bear hard usage and still look well, is the great desideratum for a lady's travelling-hat. Besides, some form of the Tam-o'-shanter, yachting-cap, hood, or lace scarf is a protection or convenience in cars, etc., where hats often prove burdensome. If you use eyeglasses, etc., be sure and set out provided with duplicate pairs, for an accident may happen in a place where you cannot immediately replace yours. The tourist will find that good opera glasses or a field glass is an agreeable adjunct, and that a Claude Lorraine glass, or dark mirror saves much straining of the neck to contemplate fine views or frescos placed on high walls or ceilings. A pocket magnifying-glass is also very desirable, as it will enable you to study the flora of any country and to examine the intricate maps in guide books with greater ease.

The usual toilet necessities, a small housewife stocked with machine bobbins instead of spools to reduce bulk, a sufficient supply of underwear (as plain and easily donned as possible), a bath robe, the above-mentioned sanitary towels, handkerchiefs, and abundant foot gear, one good travelling-suit with sundry waists, an extra skirt (to be worn in case of accident or drenching), and one evening dress suitable for table d'hôte and for the theatre, will be all that the ordinary tourist, with few or no acquaintances abroad, will really need. Besides, it is far easier to buy what you need in these days of ready-made "confections," than to encumber yourself with gowns, which, after long confinement in restricted space, are not at all likely to boast of the freshness which fes-

tive occasions demand. In packing, be very careful to separate the luggage you wish to use on board ship from that which is to be consigned to the hold, and mark each piece carefully, "wanted" for cabin or "not wanted" for hold. If possible, also despatch it in advance, so that you will have no hurry and bother at the last minute.

If you are obliged to handle your own luggage abroad, a portmanteau, or suit-case of canvas or wicker ware, is far preferable to one of leather, for the former weighs infinitely less than the latter. By lining a wicker or canvas case with water-proof or oil cloth, you can effectually preserve its contents from all dampness, and in case you want a "carry all" or "hold all," you cannot do better than to buy a piece of water-proof cloth of some unobtrusive colour. Have it two feet longer than your dress skirts or trousers, and about forty inches wide. Spread this piece of cloth on your bed, on a large table, or on the floor. Then fold your skirts or trousers carefully, and lay them flat in the centre. Add the various articles of apparel, according to weight and bulk. You can provide a few light, silk, silkolene, or muslin cases (of different colours), to contain your underwear, waists, etc., a linen bag for soiled clothes, and one for shoes. Then, your belongings being all adjusted on top of your heavier articles, fold the water-proof over at both sides, then at the ends, and fasten with large safety-pins; next roll the whole up tight, and secure with a stout shawl strap, which will hold all in shape and supply the necessary handle. When properly adjusted, a sort of pocket is formed in the centre, where you can conveniently thrust guide books, opera glasses, etc. The great objection to a carry all, however, is that it has no lock, and that if you leave your luggage in a hotel or waiting-room, it is exposed to the prying fingers of chambermaids, porters, etc. But the advantage lies in the fact that a piece of water-proof weighs only a few ounces, while the lightest of valises amounts to several pounds,—an item which deserves due respect before you

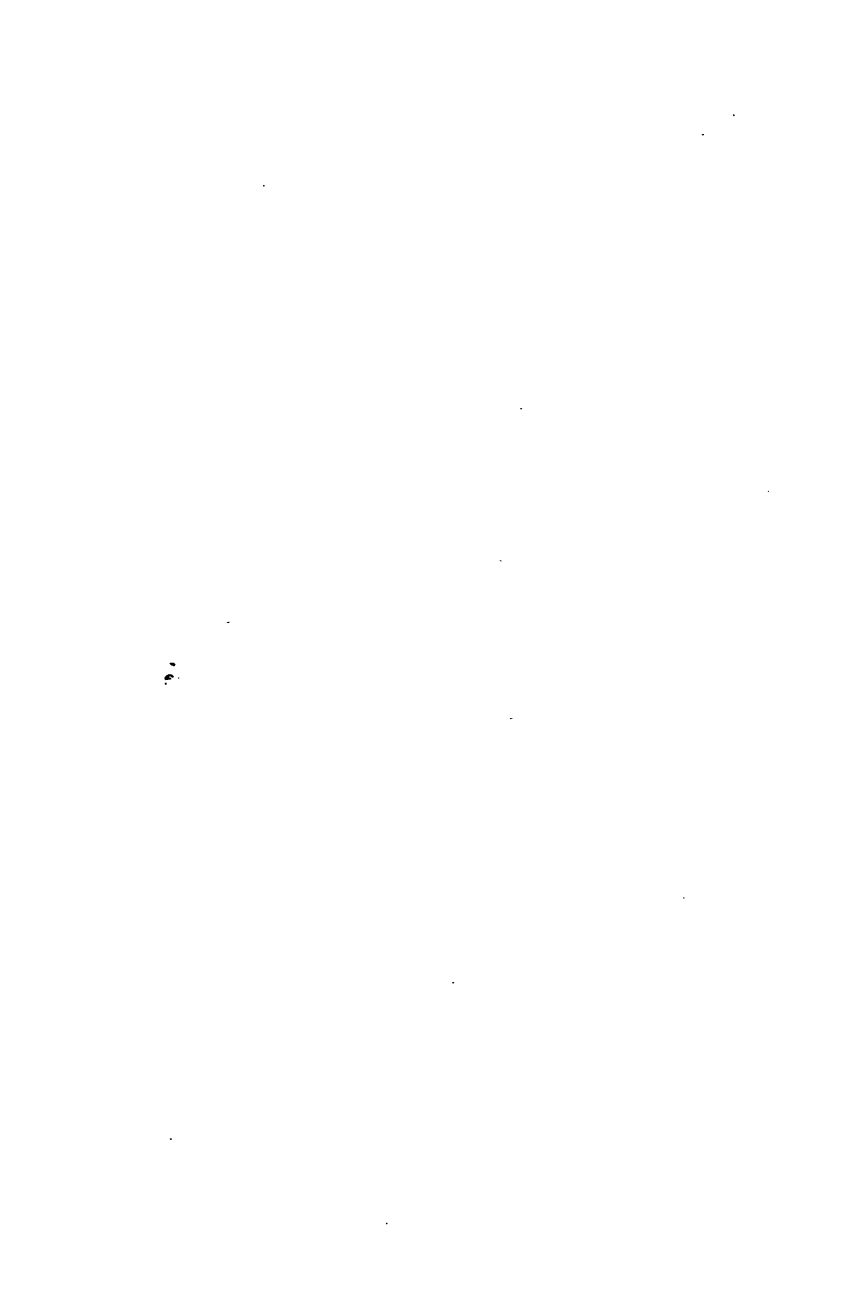
have been many days abroad. If you travel with a trunk, a heavy valise, or any article which you cannot handle personally, be sure to carry also a small hand-bag, which, in addition to, whatever valuables you may carry (the less the better), will contain toilet necessities, and whatever you may require for one night and day at least, for you cannot always depend upon seeing your luggage just when and where you want it.

In this hand-bag it is also well to keep a store of plain chocolate or bouillon tablets, the kind you can allow to dissolve in your mouth, for delays are frequent, and sometimes one has a chance to grow very faint and hungry before reaching a place where food can be procured. Chocolate and beef extract contain nourishment in a concentrated form, and as both keep indefinitely, they can be carried about without spoiling, and used to advantage when the need arises. But these two articles should be regarded strictly as "emergency rations," for wise travellers will make such stops and secure such food as they find best fitted to maintain health and strength at the highest pitch.

You have, doubtless, even in your own country discovered that a change of water may cause a slight disturbance of your physical equilibrium. In going continually from place to place, this change of water is often very detrimental to health, and travellers who object to the light European wines, which, abundantly diluted, counteract some bad effects of the water, can readily secure in most hotels and restaurants bottled mineral water of some description likely to agree perfectly with them.

On the Continent, where a light breakfast (coffee and rolls without butter) is customary, the traveller will find it difficult to secure the usual substantial American meal. But while hot breads, "buckwheat cakes," etc. are unobtainable, and fish, steaks, or chops difficult, it is very easy to procure eggs cooked in any way you choose, cold meat, and, if you bespeak it in time, some cereal, or, what many foreigners prefer to coffee, a good warm







soup. If, in general, you deviate as little as practicable from your usual diet habits, you will keep in the best condition for sustained exertion in sight-seeing.

This does not mean, however, that you are not to taste the characteristic dishes, native fruits, etc. in the various places you visit. On the contrary, seek them out and try them all, were it only for the sake of appreciating, for instance, Thackeray's poem in honour of Bouillabaisse, the distinctive dish of Marseilles.

In Italy, for instance, there is the polenta, mortadella, macaroni al sugo, salamé, panforte; in Switzerland, the Struebeli, Kümikuche, Leckerli; in Germany, Pumpernickel, Biersuppe, Berliner Pfannkuchen; in France the galettes and pâtés of various kinds, not to mention countless other national dishes in those and other countries.

Because the thermometer used abroad is either of the Réamur or Centigrade variety, it is often a puzzle to the unscientific traveller, accustomed to Fahrenheit markings. For the convenience of those who wish to know exactly how hot or how cold it is, we give on a separate page a diagram showing comparative temperatures according to the usual French, English, and German standards.

### Elementary Reading

Guerber, Yourself (a practical physiology).

## XXXVII

### SOCIETY — MANNERS — CUSTOMS — LANGUAGES

Good society is much the same all the world over, and good manners, like true politeness, start from the heart. If you remember the Golden Rule, therefore, and practise it rigidly, you cannot go far astray never mind how far afield you wander. Any mistakes you happen to make will be overlooked if your manner is courteous and conciliating.

People often remark that they cannot be polite because they do not know the language of the country wherein they are travelling ; but a courteous gesture — and sometimes a smile — go very far, and signs and pantomime can be either intelligent and deprecatory, or rude and consequently offensive, according to the manner in which they are made.

If you perceive that the manners of a country differ from those at home, do not necessarily assume that they must therefore be bad, and above all refrain from any attempt to reform them, or make them conform to your notions or standard.

It is perfectly proper to address fellow travellers and neighbours at table d'hôte, if the need or opportunity arises. Answer all impersonal questions and general remarks courteously, bow to your neighbours on coming to table and on leaving it, and above all do not forget the universal "please," "thank you," and "excuse me," which, even if you do not know the language, can always be expressed by signs, and as a rule will be accepted just as graciously.

A table d'hôte acquaintance can be continued or dropped at will, and no foreigner you are likely to address will presume upon it in any way. In many parts of Europe ladies speak first, and gentlemen bow first. In the Latin countries you will doubtless find manners more courteous than in Teutonic regions, where, for instance, it often seems as if women were decidedly inferior animals, judging by the lack of ceremony with which they are treated by the lower classes, for, of course, cultured men are the same in all parts of the world.

Ladies who are quiet, refined, and decided, need feel no apprehensions, and if they cultivate the art of not appearing to notice a certain gruffness in Teutonic manners, they will get along very nicely indeed, and discover before long that it is a surface matter only. A quietly reserved manner checks all impertinence, and I have yet to hear of the lady traveller who was "annoyed" or "insulted" when she herself gave no cause for cavalier treatment.

At the post-office and bank you may be called upon to give some mark of identification, and if your passport is not handy — as it should be — you can always present your visiting-card, a letter addressed to yourself, or some such proof of your veracity.

By observing closely what you see around you, you will learn the national customs and thus avoid falling into the ludicrous mistake which befell French and German boon companions, the national custom prescribing that one should fill his neighbour's glass as soon as emptied, while good manners, according to the standard of the other, required that he should empty his glass as soon as filled.

In observing manners, do so impartially, with the idea of learning all you can, and abstain from criticism as much as possible, or your verdict may be that of the South Sea captain, asked by his government to study the manners and customs of certain natives, who sent in the following brief report :

"Manners — none ; customs — beastly."

It is well to be cautious and prudent, for even in such a simple matter as driving you may unexpectedly and unconsciously be at fault, for the same "rules of the road" do not hold good everywhere.

Whenever you do not understand, maintain a receptive and cautious attitude. For instance, I have had occasion many times, during my long residence abroad, to save the life, as it were, of strangers, who, seeing a wooden cross hanging over the eaves of a house, dangling just about at the height of their eyes, stepped up to it, tugged it, discussed its meaning and purpose, gazing diligently upward the while. Of course they were utterly unconscious that at any minute the tilers up on the roof might throw down an avalanche of heavy broken tiles, for, having complied with the customary regulations to keep people out of danger, the men naturally fancied all was safe. When Europeans behold such dangling crosses ahead, they pass over to the other sidewalk as quickly as possible, and give the house where it hangs a very wide berth indeed, for tiles are heavy, and even one dropping accidentally from a five-story building is enough to cause concussion of the brain, if not death. Thus ignorance of local customs, may, as you see, prove a serious matter; so may lack of familiarity with the language; but in both cases a deferential, deprecatory attitude is far preferable to, and safer than, the aggressive, cock-sure mode of behaviour.

Unless you are quite sure of yourself in the matter of language, it is well to go slowly. At first it is wise to use nouns only, adding gestures if you are a tyro. You will thus avoid the error made by the Englishman who asked for "une première classe," little suspecting that he was not asking for one first-class ticket, for while class is feminine, ticket is not. He would have avoided the error by merely holding up one finger and saying only "première classe."

A friend of mine, whose knowledge of foreign languages is exclusively self-acquired and so limited that he understands only what he sees, gets along beautifully by

pretending to be a deaf-mute. With pencil and tablet he enters a store, writes, for instance, "souliers, s. v. p." (shoes, please), and the clerks immediately go to all manner of trouble for him, jotting down price, etc., on the tablet he hands them. Thinking he is a deaf-mute, as his attitude seems to imply, they refrain from pouring out a string of remarks which he cannot comprehend, resort to sign language, — current the world over, — and he is not annoyed by having them scream at him as they otherwise would do with any elderly person who did not seem to understand.

After hearing the language a few hours, you can use all you know, and learn all you can, but avoid "showing off." It is wiser not to use French in doubtful cases, for you may trip like the ex-Lord Mayor, who had his cards printed "Feu Lord Mayor de Londres." Above all do not interlard your conversation with French — or any other language — on your return, and speak of "cabane de luxe" (instead of cabine), of gowns trimmed with a "ragoût of lace," and declare that you always take a coupé to go to the café, pronouncing the words the while "coop" and "kayf."

We have all heard of the stranger who had gone everywhere and seen everything in Paris except "Complet," explaining that he never could get there, as all the stages and trams bound thither invariably refused to stop for him. This "Complet," which so befuddled him, is the usual sign that all the seats in a vehicle are occupied, for it is not allowed in France to receive any more passengers than can be seated, either inside the conveyance or outside on the cheaper seats.

We have also heard of the man who walked into a glove store and insisted that he must have some of "Gant's gloves," thinking the while that the word "Gants," written on the show-case, referred to some special maker. In most of the large stores some of the clerks can speak a little English, but it is often very rudimentary, and conforms too exactly to the notice on the window of a vender of imitation jewelry, where the

sign read "Jewelry. Imitation English Spoken." In Salzburg, Austria, English travellers are requested, by a notice pasted up in their rooms, to "ring for the hostler" (hausdiener), a very free translation of "bell boy," and are informed that "diners are served on separate tables" at certain rates per head, although the establishment is not kept by cannibals.

The English you hear on the Continent gives you the measure of what the average American perpetrates, when he or she attempts foreign languages. Still, as we learn as much through our mistakes as anything else, it is well to go ahead and do our best. Any one who cannot have lessons from some good native teacher can gain a reading knowledge, at least, in a very brief time of any continental language. French and German are the most used and therefore the most important. Besides, it is quite feasible to learn the few necessary sentences and the nouns which will be most useful in a very short time — even on board ship — if you are not sea-sick.

There are innumerable French and German "methods," schools of language in every large town (such as the Berlitz and Stern Schools of Languages), and teachers more or less efficient even in small centres. Besides, there are such manuals as Baedeker's and Cook's, arranged in parallel columns and giving "conversations" in four languages. Recently the phonograph method of teaching languages has made great headway, especially in places where educated native teachers are not always to be secured.

Should this travel book prove useful to you, it may induce you to try the author's manuals for French and German, which are easily read, extensively used in schools, and serve as stepping-stones to French and German literature, provided the directions given are faithfully carried out.

For the convenience of travellers who have no "helps" with them, a few of the most necessary words are appended to this chapter, the English column being

arranged in alphabetical order to facilitate the search for any expression required.

Women travelling alone will find it advantageous to join the Women's Rest Tour Association (17 Pinckney St., Boston, Mass.) before leaving home. This Association, "essentially one of mutual helpfulness and good will," endorsed and supported by some of the best known and most honored women of the country, supplies its members with addresses of hotels, boarding-places, etc., and furnishes many other items of valuable information, in return for a trifling fee. —

Now, having supplied the prospective tourist with all the assistance necessary to go in quest of more information than any mere book can supply, there only remains to wish him or her a most cordial "bon voyage."

### Bibliography: Languages

**Adams** Cable Codex; **Baedeker**, Traveller's Manual of Conversation in English, German, French, and Italian; **Berlitz**, Language books; **Cook**, Manual of Conversation; **Guerber**, Contes et Légendes (French Method), I and II; Märchen und Erzählungen (German Method), I and II; **Loth**, Tourist's Conversational Guide; **Marlborough**, Self-Taught Language Series; **Rosenthal**, Meisterschaft System; **Stern** and **Méras**, Méthode Pratique; **Unicode**: Universal Typographic Phrase Book; **Western Union** Cable Code.

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**NOTE.** — The author intended to conclude this volume with a Comparative Chronological Table covering all the ground from the dawn of history to date. Owing to bulk, and because the majority of readers will be satisfied with the tables already given, it has been decided to publish this table separately.

## Vocabulary in Six Languages

English	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Dutch
afternoon, P.M.	après-midi (m. or f.)	der Nachmittag, nachm.	dopo, pranzo, or pomeridiano	tarde	namiddag.
all aboard !	en voiture (train), embarquez (boat), or à bord	einsteigen	partenza (train), a bordo (boat)	viajeros al tren (train), viajeros al buque (boat)	instappen (train), allaan aan board (boat)
arrive, to . . .	arriver	ankommen	arriva	llegar à	aankomen.
baggage (luggage) boarding (bed and table)	bagages, or colis (m.) pension, f.	das Gepäck Wohnung und Kost, or die Pension	baule, or bagaglio pensione (letto e mensa)	equipaje hospedaje	bagage logies (kost en inwoning)
breakfast (early)	déjeuner. or café au lait (m.)	erstes Frühstück	colazione (di buon ora)	desayuno	vroeg outbijt
breakfast (late)	déjeuner à la fourchette (m.)	zweites Frühstück	colazione (tardi)	almuerzo	laat outbijt
cab	fiacre (m.)	die Droschke, or der Fiaker	vettura	coche	rytuig.
car (dining)	wagon (m.)	der Wagen	vagone	vagon	wagon.
car (sleeping)	wagon-restaurant (m.) wagon-lit (m.) or coupé (m.)	der Speisewagen der Schlafwagen	vagone buffet vagone letto	vagon comedor vagon de cama	slaapwagon.
change cars	changez de wagon (m.)	unsteigen	si cambia vagone	cambiesede tren	overstappen.
check (baggage), to . . .	bulletin (m.), enregistrer	der Gepäckschein	scoutirino dei bagagli	talón	reçu.
coachman	cocher (m.)	der Kutscher	cocchiere	cochero	koetsier.
come	venez	kommen Sie	venite	vengan Vs.	kóm
conductor (guard)	conducteur, m.	der Schaffner	conduttore	conductor	conducteur.
custom-house	douane (f.)	das Zollamt	dogana	aduana	douane.
dinner	diner (m.)	das Mittagessen, or das Diner	pranzo	comida	middagmaal,
does this train connect?	ce train correspond-il?	hat dieser Zug Anschluss?	coincide questo treno?	empalma este tren?	sluit deze trein aan?



entrance excuse me (beg pardon)	entrée (f.) pardon, or excusez	der Eingang entschuldigen Sie, or Ver- zeihen Sie	entrata mi scusi	entrada dispense me	ingang. excuseert mij.
exit express (train)	sortie (f.) expres, or grande vi- tesse, or rapide	der Ausgang der Schnelligung	uscita treno diretto	salida tren expreso	uitgang. express (tre n).
express (baggage)	grande vitesse (f.)	Gepäckbevorzugung, or Spe- dition	trasporto bagagli	expreso de equi- paje	express (ba- gage).
fee (tip)	pourboire (m.)	das Trinkgeld	mancia	propina	fooi
forenoon (A.M.)	matin	der Vormittag, vorm.	mattina, or antimeri- diane	mañana	voormiddag.
freight full (no seats)	frêt, or petite vitesse complet, or pas de place	die Fracht, or mit Eilfracht voll, or besetzt	merce completo, or non vi sono posti	carga lleno	vracht. vol (geen zit- plaatsen).
<i>gentlemen (men)</i> get in! get out! go away good-bye good day guide (courier) guide (book) how much?	messieurs (hommes) montez! descendez! allez-vous-en, or partez adieu, or au revoir bonjour guide, or courier, m. guide (guide Joanne), m. combien?	Herrn (Männer) einsteigen! aussteigen! gehen Sie weg, or fort Leben Sie wohl, or Ade Guten Tag der Führer, or der Courier das Reisehandbuch wie viel?	Signori entrate! uscite! andate arrivederci, or addio buen giorno guida, or corriere guida (fibro) quanto?	caballeros entren Vs.! salgan Vs.! vayase Vs. adios buenos dias guia quanto?	heeren (man- stap in! (nen). stap uit! salgan Vs.! ga weg! tot ziens. goeden dag. gids (koerier). gids (boek). hoeveel?
	à l'intérieur dames (femmes) dames seules partir, permettre à gauche lettre, f. lettre chargée, or lettre recommandée	innen Damen (Frauen) nur für Damen, or Frauen Abteil abgehen, erlauben, or ge- stalten links der Brief der eingeschriebene Brief	interno (omnibus) signore signore sole partire, or permettere a sinistra lettera lettera raccomandata	dentro señoras señoras sólo salgan Vs. izquierda carta carta certificada	binnen. dames. voor dames or dames-coupé. vertrekken, or toestaan linkerhand. brief. aangezekende brief.

Vocabulary in Six Languages — *Continued*

English	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Dutch
luncheon (late breakfast)	déjeuner à la fourchette	Gabelfrühstück	colazione (tardi)	almuerzo	koffiedrinken.
make haste	dépêchez-vous	eilen Sie, schnell!	pronto, <i>or</i> pronto	dense Va. prisa	haast u!
midnight	minuit	die Mitternacht	mezzanotte	media noche	midternacht.
Mr.	monsieur (M.)	Herr	Signore	Señor, Sr.	mynheer.
Mrs.	madame (Mme.)	Frau	Signora	Señora, Sra.	mevrouw.
money	argent (m.)	das Geld	denaro, <i>or</i> moneta	divero	geld.
money order	mandat de poste (m.)	die Geldanweisung, <i>or</i> Postanweisung	vaglia postale	giro postale	geldorder.
no	non	kein	no	no	neen
noon	midi	der Mittag	mezzogiorno	mediodi	12 uur, <i>or</i> middag.
no smoking	défense de fumer	Rauchen verboten	è vietato il fumare	se prohibe fumar	niet rooken.
nothing for me.	rien pour moi?	Nichts für mich?	niente per me?	nada para mi?	niets voor mij?
not so fast	pas si vite	nicht so schnell	non così presto	non tan de prisa	niet zoo snel.
one, first (class ticket)	un, première (or un billet de première classe)	eine, erster (eine Fahrkarte erster Klasse)	un (biglietto) di prima (classe)	un (billete) de primera	een eerste klas (kaartje).
one, second (class ticket)	un, seconde	ein, zweiter (ein Billet zweiter Klasse)	un (biglietto) di seconda (classe)	un (billete) de segunda	een tweede klas (kaartje).
one, third (class ticket)	un, troisième	eine, <i>or</i> ein dritter	un (biglietto) di terza (classe)	un (billete) de tercera	een derde klas (kaartje).
outside (omnibus)	à l'extérieur	ausen, <i>or</i> oben	esterno (omnibus)	fuera	bovenop (omnibus),
platform	perron (m.)	der Bahnsteig	piattaforma	plataforma	perron.
please	s'il-vous-plait (s. v. p.)	bitte	vi prego	hígame el favor	als het u beleeft.

porter	commissaire (m.)	der Gepäckträger, <i>or</i> der Dienstmann die Postkarte	facchino	metro	kruier.
postal-card	carte postale, <i>or</i> carte de correspondance	die Postkarte	cartolina postale	trajta postal	briefkaart.
railroad receipt	chemin de fer (m.) reçu (m.), <i>or</i> bulletin (m.)	die Eisenbahn der Empfangschein, <i>or</i> die Quittung	ferrovia	ferrocarril	spoorweg.
return (ticket, <i>or</i> "double")	retour, <i>or</i> aller et re- tour	die Rückfahrkarte, <i>or</i> Zurück	ricevuta, <i>or</i> scontrino	resibo	ontvangstube- wys.
right (hand)	à droite	rechts	biglietto di andata e ritorno	billete de ida i vuelta	retourkaartje.
smokers, (for . . .)	Fumeurs (pour . . .)	für Raucher, <i>or</i> Raucher gestattet	à destra	derecha	rechterhand.
something for me?	quelque chose pour moi?	Etwas für mich?	per fumatori	para fumar	rookwagon.
stamps (letter)	timbres	Briefmarken, <i>or</i> Postmarken	qualche cosa per me?	algo para mi?	iets voor mij?
stamps (local)	timbres pour la France	einheimische Postmarken	francobolli per l'interno	sellos domesticos	binnenlandische postzegels.
stamps (foreign)	timbres pour l'étranger	ausländische Postmarken	francobolli per l'estero	sellos extran- jeros	buitenlandische postzegels.
station (railway)	gare (f.), <i>or</i> station (f.)	der Bahnhof	stazione di ferrovia	estacion	spoorwegsta- tion.
station master	chef de gare	der Bahnhofsvorsteher	capo stazione	jefe de estacion	stationschef.
store (to . . .)	mettre en consigne	auf lager geben, <i>or</i> depo- niren	mettere al deposito bagagli	almacenar	in bewaring geven.
take care, look out!	prenez garde, <i>or</i> gare!	Vorsicht! <i>or</i> Achtung! <i>or</i> Vorsehen!	fate attenzione, <i>or</i> ba- date	tenga V. cui- dado	zorg dragen!
telegram (dispatch)	dépêche (f.)	das Telegram, <i>or</i> die De- pesche	telegramma, <i>or</i> dispa- cio	telegrama	<i>or</i> pas op! telegram.
thank you	merci	danke	Grazie	gracias	dank u.
there are no seats	pas de place	bessetzt, <i>or</i> keine Plätze	non vi sono posti	no hay asientos	er sijn geen plaatsen.
ticket-office, <i>or</i> booking office	le guichet (m.)	der Schalter, <i>or</i> die Fahr- kartenausgabe	Sportello della distri- buzione	despacho de bil- letes	kaartjesbureau, <i>or</i> loket.
time table (railway)	indicateur (des chemins de fer, m.)	der Fahrplan	orario	tabla de trenes	spoorweggids.

## Vocabulary in Six Languages — Continued

English	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Dutch
toilet room (water closet)	cabinet de toilette, cabinet d'aisance	die Toilette, <i>or</i> das Closet, <i>or</i> der Abritt	ritirata, <i>or</i> cesso	retrete	cabinet, <i>or</i> waterplaats.
too much	trop	zu viel	troppo	demasiado	te veel.
track	voie (f.)	das Gleis, <i>or</i> der Schienenweg	binario, <i>or</i> via	via	spoorbaan.
train	train, (m.) <i>or</i> convoi (m.)	der Zug	treno	tren	trein.
train (limited)	train omnibus	durchgehender Zug (D—zug)	treno lampo	tren limitado	sneltrein.
train (express)	train grande vitesse, <i>or</i> rapide	Schnellzug	treno diretto	tren expreso	express-trein.
train (local)	train de banlieue	Lokalzug, <i>or</i> Vorstadtzug	treno omnibus, <i>or</i> locale	tren local	lokaaltrein.
transfer	correspondance (f.)		corrispondenza	transladense Va.	vervoer.
waiting-room	salle d'attente (f.)	das Wartezimmer	sala d'aspetto	sala de espera	wachtkamer.
what is the cost?	combien?	was kostet das?	quanto costa?	cuanto vale?	wat kost het?
yes	oui	ja	si	si	ja.

## FICTION

A NUMBER of the works quoted herein are for boys and girls, others are adapted only to mature readers ; hence caution should be exercised in making a selection.

### Asia Minor

Arabian Nights Entertainment ; Atherstone, Handwriting on the Wall ; Barrett and Hichens, Two Daughters of Babylon ; Beckford, History of the Caliph Vathek ; Church and Seeley, Hammer, A Story of Maccabean Times ; Corelli, Barabbas ; Crawford, Zoroaster ; Croly, Salathiel, the Immortal ; Davis, Belshazzar ; De Koven, By the Waters of Babylon ; Delitzsch, Joseph and Benjamin ; Ebers, Homo Sum ; Joshua ; Esop, Fables ; Fenn, Yussuf the Guide ; Field, The Holy Cross (Wandering Jew) ; Henty, For the Temple ; The Boy Knight ; Ingraham, Prince of the House of David ; Pillar of Fire ; Kipling, Life's Handicap (The Wandering Jew) ; Manning, Haroun al Rashid ; McCarthy, Thousand and One Days ; Melville, Sarchedon ; Peploe, Naomi ; Phelps, Master of the Magicians ; Potter, Belshazzar ; Councils of Croesus ; Istar of Babylon ; Roe, Belteshazzar ; Ruskin, King of the Golden River ; Strass, Helon's Pilgrimage to Jerusalem ; Sue, The Wandering Jew ; Tucker, Exiles in Babylon ; Van Dyke, The Other Wise Man ; Wallace (Lew), Ben Hur ; Ward, Come with me to Babylon ; Come forth ! ; Ware, Letters from Palmyra ; Zenobia.

### Art

Anstey, A Tinted Venus ; Brightwell, Palissy, the Huguenot Potter ; Conscience, How One Becomes a Painter ; Daudet, Artists' Wives ; Du Maurier, Trilby ; Heimburg (translated by Wister), Insignificant Woman ; Hüllern (von), Higher than the Church ; Howard, Guenn ; Howells, Coast of Bohemia ; James (Henry), Real Thing ; Merejowski, Romance of Leonardo da Vinci ; Thackeray (Miss), Miss Angel ; Ungern-Sternberg, Breuchel Brothers ; Wilde, Master of Tanagra ; Zangwill and Cowen, Premier and Painter.

## Austria

**Curtin**, Myths and Folktales of the Russians, Western Slavs, and Magyars; **Crawford**, Witch of Prague; **Emmus and Barstow**, Old Hungarian Fairy Tales; **Franzos**, For the Right; **Freytag**, Debit and Credit; **Gerard**, A Queen of Curds and Cream; **Gore**, Hungarian Tales; **Guénol**, Bohemians in the Fifteenth Century; **Harrison** (Burton), A Princess of the Hills; **Hillern (von)**, Geier-Wally, A Tale of Tyrol; **Hope**, Rupert of Hentzau; **Prisoner of Zenda**; **Jokal**, Hungarian Nabob; **Modern Midas**; **Dr. Dumay's Wife**; **Kompert**, Scenes from the Ghetto; **Latchmore**, Siege of Vienna; **Melville**, Interpreter; **Muhlbach**, **Andreas Hofer**; **The Emperor Joseph and Marie Antoinette**; **Joseph II and his Court**; **Maria Theresa and her Fireman**; **Emperor Leopold II and his Times**; **Ménec**, Grandmother; **Mikszath**, **St. Peter's Umbrella**; **Paalzow (von)**, Citizen of Prague; **Porter**, Hungarian Brothers; **Sand**, John Ziska; **Spielhagen**, Through Night to Light; **Tautphœus**, At Odds; **Initials**; **Quits**; **Trollope**, **Lotta Schmidt**; **Romance of Vienna**; **Vernaleken**, In the Land of Marvels; **Folktales from Austria and Bohemia**; **Werner** (translated by Wister), **Banned and Blessed**; **Good Luck**; **St. Michael**; **Wohl**, **Sham Gold**.

## Balkan Peninsula

**Corelli**, **Barabbas**; **Crawford**, **Paul Patoff**; **Croly**, **Salathiel**, the Immortal; **Davenant**, **Siege of Rhodes**; **Davis**, the Princess Aline; **Forbes**, **Czar and Sultan**; **Hemyng**, **Jack Harkaway's Battle with the Turks**; **Henty**, **Fighting the Saracens**; **Knight of the Cross (Rhodes)**; **Hope**, **Prisoner of Zenda**; **Rupert of Hentzau**; **The Heart of the Princess Osra**; **Kunos**, **Fairy and Folk Tales**; **Ludlow**, **Captain of the Janizaries**; **McCutcheon**, **Beverly of Graustark**; **Graustark**; **Saintine**, **Chrisna**, **Queen of the Danube**; **Scott**, **Betrothed**; **Count Robert of Paris**; **Sue**, **Wandering Jew**; **Wallace (Lew)**, **Prince of India, or Why Constantinople Fell**; **Weber**, **Turkish Tales**; **Williamson**, **My Friend the Chauffeur**.

## France

**Abbott**, **Rollo in Paris**; **About**, **The Works of: Anon**, **Four Sons of Aymon**; **Baldwin**, **Story of Roland**; **Balzac**, **The Works of**; **Bentham Edwards**, **Dream-Charlotte**; **Besant**, **St. Catherine's by the Tower**; **Gaspard de Coligny**; **Blackmore**, **Springhaven**; **Bourget**, **Domestic Dramas, etc.**; **Brooks**, **Boy of the First Empire**; **Bulfinch**, **Legends of Charlemagne**; **Bulwer Lytton**, **Richelieu**; **Parisians**; **Catherwood**, **Joan of Arc**; **Lazare**; **Carolus**, **Romance of L'Aiglon**; **Conscience**, **Veva, or War of the Peasants**; **Daudet**, **Tartarin of Tarascon, etc.**;

Dickens, *Tale of Two Cities*; Doyle, *Adventures of a Brigadier-General*; Great Shadow, and *Beyond the City*; *Refugees*; *White Company*; Dumas, *The Works of*; Du Maurier, *Trilby*, etc.; Duncan, *Daughters of To-day*; Ellis, *Romances relating to Charlemagne*; Erckmann-Chatrian, *Works of*; Esquiros, *Charlotte Corday*; Feuillet, *Bellah*, etc.; Gaboriau, *Other People's Money*; Gautier, *Captain Fracasse*, etc.; Genlis, *Siege of La Rochelle*; Gore, *Reign of Terror*; Gras, *Reds of the Midi*; Gréville, *Gabrielle*, etc.; Guernsey, *Chevalier's Daughter*; Gundling, *Louis Napoleon*; Hale, *In His Name*; *Legends of Charlemagne*; Halévy, *Abbé Constantin*; Hardy, *Passe-Rose*; Henty, *Young Franc-tireurs*; *Young Bugler*; *St. George for England*; *St. Bartholomew's Eve*; *In the Reign of Terror*; *Through Russian Snows*; Houghton, *Fifine*; Howard, *Aulnay Tower*; Hugo, *The Works of*; Jackson, *The Old Régime*; James (G. P. R.), *Mary of Burgundy*; Richelieu, etc.; Jones, *Little Jeanneton's Work*; *Only a Girl*; Kavanagh, *Madeleine*; Keddie, *Huguenot Family*; Laboulaye, *Fairy Tales*; Lavergne, *Legends of the Trianon, Versailles, and St. Germain*; Lever, *Maurice Tiernay*; Lucas, *Within Iron Walls*; Macquoid, *Beside the River*; Macgruder, *Princess Sonia*; Major, *When Knighthood was in Flower*; Mancur, *Henry IV*; Martineau, *Peasant and Prince*; Meredith, *Lucile*; Mitchell, *Adventures of François*; Muhlbach, *The Empress Josephine*; Marie Antoinette and her Son; Ohnet, *The Iron Master*; Perrault, *Fairy Tales*; Potter, *Celtic Fairy Tales*; *House of De Mailly*; Pulitzer, *Prince Eugene*; Radcliffe, *Court of Henry III*; Gaston de Blondville; Ricault, *A Tale of the Terror*; Reade, *White Lies*; *Cloister and the Hearth*; Runkle, *Helmet of Navarre*; Sand, *Fadette*; *Gallant Lords of Bois Doré*, etc.; Saintine, *Picciola*; Sartoris, *A Week in a French Country House*; Schultz, *Story of Colette*; Scott, *Quentin Durward*; Anne of Geierstein; *Tales of a Grandfather*; Seawell, *History of Lady Betty Stair*; Short-house, *Countess Eva*; Souvestre, *The Works of*; Stevenson, *Lodging for the Night*; Stockton, *Story of Viteau*; Sue, *The Works of*; Tolstoi, *War and Peace*; Trollope, *La Vendée*; Twain (Mark), *Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc*; Verne, *Flight to France*; Wilson, *Rose of Normandy*; Vigny, *Cinq-Mars*; Weyman, *Gentleman of France*; *Red Cockade*; *Under the Red Robe*; *From the Memoirs of a Minister of France*; *Man in Black*; *House of the Wolf*; Whiteley, *For the French Lilies*; Williamson, *Lightning Conductor*; Yonge, *A Chaplet of Pearls*; Kenneth, or the *Rear Guard of the Grand Army*; *Little Duke*; *Stray Pearls*; Zschokke, *Alamontade, a Galley Slave*; Zola, *The Works of*.

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### Germany

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### Great Britain

**Abbott**, Rollo in London; **Aguilar**, Days of Bruce; **Ainsworth**, Miser's Daughter; **Tower of London**; **Windsor Castle**;



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